The Impact of Implementing an Individualised Peer-Tutoring Programme on Low-Attaining Secondary School Readers

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Declaration

This dissertation is the result of my own work and includes nothing which is the outcome of work done in collaboration except as declared in the preface and specified in the text.

It is not substantially the same as any that I have submitted, or, is being concurrently submitted for a degree or diploma or other qualification at the University of Cambridge or any other university or similar institution except as declared in the preface and specified in the text. I further state that no substantial part of my dissertation has already been submitted, or, is being concurrently submitted for any such degree, diploma or other qualification at the University of Cambridge or any other university or similar institution except as declared in the preface and specified in the text.

It does not exceed the prescribed 80,000 word limit for the PhD Degree Committee for the Faculty of Education.

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Abstract

This study focuses on improving the reading skills of a group of low-attaining secondary school students and their perceptions of themselves as readers. While other studies have mainly focused on younger students' initial efforts to learn to read or on specific aspects determined by the author's theoretical perspective, this present study's pragmatic approach enables the complex needs of older low-attaining readers to be recognised. In the study, cognitive, emotional and social aspects of reading were explored and a peer-tutoring programme was designed to address the participants' needs in these areas. The unique feature of this programme involved students moving from a position of being tutees to becoming tutors and their different perceptions as they took on these different roles is explored.

Over two twelve-week phases, four secondary readers and their peer tutoring partners were cases which enabled an exploration of the effects that this intervention had on their reading attainment and their perceptions of themselves as readers. By employing a parallel concurrent mixed method design, the cognitive elements were observed through the employment of summative pre- and post-tests and formative assessments conducted every three weeks. The emotional and social elements of the reading process were detected through three open-ended interviews in each phase, along with recorded weekly observations of the partnerships participating in the sessions, providing a means for the complexity of the adolescents' relationships with text to evolve.

Both the quantitative and qualitative data indicate that by the end of the study all participants' reading levels had progressed and they had all experienced positive changes to their perceptions of themselves as readers. With the exception of one tutee, all participants displayed substantial progress in standardised testing, while the individuals who assumed the tutor role experienced greater gains to their perceptions of themselves as readers. However, the participants who acted in both roles showed greater

improvements to their self-perceptions than those who had only assumed one role. These findings highlight the importance of addressing the social needs of secondary students who are low attainers in reading. Reimagining cross-ability peer tutoring provided a means to meet these cognitive, emotional and social needs. By having low-attaining readers in both the tutee and tutor roles, positive relationships developed between the partnerships and tutees were provided with a role model that they emulated by the second phase of the study.

Acknowledgements

As I began my studies, I was somewhat daunted by the realities of such a large undertaking. Even though I was prepared for the time and mental constraints that my studies might pose to my life, I was not ready for the hurdles that life would throw into my family's path. I would like to express my appreciation to all of the individuals that made it possible for me to reach the finish line of this particularly long path. However, there are a few that I must address individually.

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Table of Contents

LIST OF DIAGRAMS

LIST OF TABLES

Part I- Introduction, Literature Review and Methodology

Chapter 1 Introduction

Internationally, education boards have compiled reports to consider the students leaving school with reading attainment levels that they deemed as low (ADORE, 2009; U.S. Department of Education, 2002). Although the majority of students attain basic reading skills by the time they leave primary school, a substantial number do not (DfES, 2008; OECD, 2015). This problem is reflected in the PISA study as 18% of students in the US, the UK, and other participating countries scored below what the study defined as "the baseline level of proficiency, at which students begin to demonstrate the reading literacy competencies that will enable them to participate effectively and productively in life" (OECD, 2009, p. iii). As this issue is deliberated, the focus is placed on understanding the skill of reading, determining how people learn to read and why some are able to acquire the skill with ease while others struggle.

In my years of teaching in both the United Kingdom and the United States, I have been surprised by many of my students' low reading attainment levels. As a secondary teacher, I felt ill-prepared to assist my students in acquiring basic reading skills so I attended further schooling to assist my efforts and other teachers in finding strategies to benefit low-attaining students in their classrooms. As my efforts to find effective reading strategies realistic to the constraints of the classroom were somewhat fruitless, I designed a programme that parents could utilise to tutor their low-attaining children which produced positive results. Although this was a fulfilling outcome, questions began to arise in my mind regarding the reasons behind this growth and whether these results would be replicable in the classroom.

The main purpose of this study was to consider the elements that could assist "older" students, mainly those in Key Stages 3 and 4, in increasing their reading skills. I wanted to ascertain what elements a reading intervention could be comprised of and how these elements could be taught. Although there is an extensive body of literature about teaching reading, much of the research has been conducted with younger students who have not experienced frustration to the extent of their older counterparts. In past

research, many different theoretical perspectives have been held about the complex process that has given most studies a focus on either the technical or emotional elements of the reading process. The present study will be underpinned by a constructionist epistemology, which is to say that a middle ground between these subjective and objective aspects will be established in attempts to find a workable intervention. This epistemology facilitated my exploration of the results of combining these elements on both the reading attainment levels and self-perceptions of secondary students. This exploration also contributes to the quest to find methods to benefit low-attaining secondary students with their reading skills and adds to the discussion as to what elements are necessary for an intervention to be successful with low-attaining secondary readers.

In the following chapter, I review the plethora of literature that has been conducted about reading over the last two centuries and many perspectives on reading. First, I address what government projects have revealed in their reviews of this literature as well as seminal cases that have shaped the practices for teaching reading in the past. After this examination of research of the general process, I turn the spotlight on to low-attaining individuals and whether assessments are capable of determining levels of reading attainment. Then, I focus on the emotional aspects of the reading experience and the importance and the methods of making these experiences positive. My review of the literature generates two research questions along with an intervention to meet the needs of low-attaining secondary readers.

In Chapter Three, I discuss the pragmatic theoretical perspective that provides the rationale for my study and its focus on both the subjective and objective methods proposed by the literature review and found to be necessary to increase the skills of these low-attaining students. My questions require the use of both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods and the use of the mixed method design. As the study also revolves around low-attaining secondary school readers, their selection and rights are also included in this chapter.

In Part II, I present my findings. First, I introduce the participants and the peer tutoring partnerships that they formed. Then, I present the quantitative data collected and its

implications towards the intervention's effect on the participants. Afterwards, the qualitative data is organised according to the themes that emerged regarding the participants' views on reading, themselves as readers and the relationships created. In the final chapter, I discuss the study's findings in relation to the research questions and future practice.

Chapter 2- Literature Review

2.0 Definitions and Perspectives of Reading

Despite seemingly consisting of only the reader and their text, reading is complex and numerous definitions exist. According to a socio-cultural perspective, reading also includes a third element, the activity (RAND, 2002). In defining the activity element, Snow and Sweet (2003), include: "purposes- why people read; processes- what mental activity they engage in while reading; and consequences- what readers learn or experience as a result of reading" (p. 2). In his review of the numerous existing definitions of reading and what occurs between the reader and text, Harrison (2004) categorised these definitions into whether they pertained to the products or processes of reading. Within these categories, there are multiple perspectives of the abstract relationship between the reader and the text.

According to cognitive psychology theory, the reader processes small units of the text to create meaning (Pressley & Allington, 2014). Contrastingly, psycho-linguistic theories perceive that a reader's understanding of a text is founded on the process of making predictions based on their knowledge of language and the world around them (Smith, 2012). Despite envisioning the reader's activity differently, "both perspectives emphasize the individual nature of the construction of meaning: the individual is seen as the centre of thought" (Hall, 2010b, p. 134). However, the socio-cultural perspective alters the focus to include the reader's social and cultural "context that both shapes and is shaped by the reader" (Snow & Sweet, 2003, p. 2).

In their study of the cognitive processes necessitated for reading to occur, Gough and Tunmer (1986) introduced the Simple View of Reading in a formula where "reading equals the product of decoding and comprehension" (p. 7). In Harrison's (2010) analysis of the Simple View of Reading, he concludes that both elements are separate and necessary to reading and that the formula is widely correct. However, he argues that:

> A complex view of the teaching of reading is necessary to place appropriate emphasis on the skilled and effective teaching of phonics, but also to acknowledge the crucial importance of the teacher's role teaching decoding, also in developing comprehension and in leading children into enjoyable experiences with books in a range of pedagogical and social contexts (p. 217).

In a subsequent report, Tunmer and Chapman (2012) expound that the Simple View of Reading is also comprised of phonological awareness, motivation and other social influences. As this study's focus is adolescents, this social aspect has even greater significance as they are more strongly influenced by their peers (Ehrlinger, et. al., 2016).

In order to fully examine the relationship that low-attaining secondary school readers have with text and the process of reading, this chapter is organised around these elements. First, the Simple View of Reading is employed as a model to investigate the cognitive processes necessary for reading. As adolescent readers have had numerous experiences with text, the emotional processes, necessitated for readers to make emotional connections with a text are then examined. Afterwards, the social aspects that provide context to these cognitive and emotional processes are explored. Through these multiple perspectives, the products and processes of a low-attaining adolescent's reading experience can be more fully understood and their needs more clearly identified. With this information, an intervention could be designed to better meet these needs.

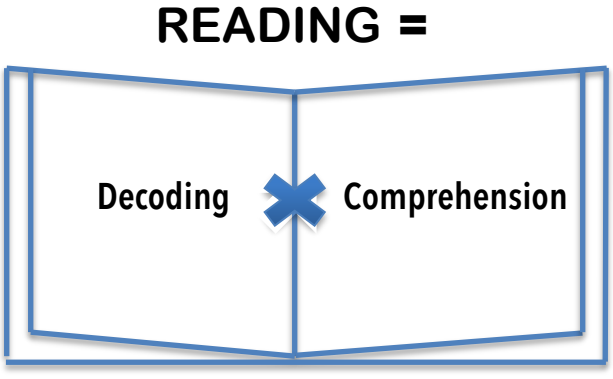


Diagram 1- The Simple View of Reading

2.1 Decoding and The Phonics Debate

Different perspectives have promoted numerous approaches to reading and language development. "The key to learning to decode words is the principle that all letters can represent sounds" (Stahl, Duffy-Hester & Stahl, 1998, p. 339) and phonics teaches the relationship between these letters and sounds to assist in word recognition. Among these perspectives, two approaches towards the teaching of phonics have created division in the field of phonics research. Synthetic phonics is a bottom-up approach where "students are taught the individual sounds in words and how to blend these individual sounds into word pronunciation" (Shanahan, 2005, p. 11). However, analytic phonics is a top-down process where phonemes are not isolated instead students are taught to identify common phonemes in sets of words in order to assist word recognition (National Literacy Trust, 2017).

The National Reading Panel in the US was constructed in 2000 in order to resolve the division created by these approaches. The panel found that explicit and systematic phonics instruction was significantly more effective than programmes without an organised approach to the teaching of phonics. However, they did not find significant differences in success between which type of systematic phonics method was employed. The panel's findings made "many current reading experts, the federal government and publishers proclaim that [they had] reached consensus within the field concerning how people read, how they learn to read and how reading should be taught" (Shannon, 2007, p. 61).

Others have not so readily accepted these conclusions; Torgerson's report (2006) questions the validity of the NRP findings with claims of publication bias as small negative studies were missing from the final report. Additionally, Ehri, Nunes, Stahl, and Willows (2001) indicate that the report only included studies that were published by journals reviewed by peers. Hall (2010) also criticises the limited use of qualitative studies in the review. Samuels, a committee member of the National Reading Panel, also suggests the limitations of the report, as the major components were selected according to the panel members' areas of expertise (Shannon, 2007). However, as Shanahan argued in

2003, these are critiques of process and method rather on the actual findings, making the panel's demand for systematic and explicit decoding instruction still applicable.

Another attempt to distinguish the most effective means of teaching phonics was by the Scottish Executive Education Department who conducted a study to compare the effects of a synthetic phonics programme, an analytic phonics programme, and a programme composed of phonemic awareness instruction (Johnston & Watson, 2005). Upon entering school for their first year, three hundred students were taught using one of the three programmes over sixteen weeks. At the end of the study, the group of children who had received the synthetic phonics training were reading words seven months ahead and spelling eight to nine months ahead of their peers. Afterwards, all of the three hundred students received the synthetic phonics training and were tested annually for six years. At the end of this time, their word reading was 3 years and six months (3.6) ahead of chronological age, spelling was 1.9 years ahead and reading comprehension was 3.5 months ahead.

However, Wyse and Goswami (2008) questioned the design of this particular study. They found it insufficient to pronounce synthetic phonics' superiority, partly due to the differences between the study's groups regarding the absolute amount taught, the number of letters introduced and the explicit instruction given (Goswami, 2007). In addition, Dombey and the United Kingdom Literacy Association (2010) have reported that the favourable results from the Johnston and Watson (2005) study have dwindled and the Local Authority has achieved lower scores on Scotland's national reading tests than other Local Authorities with similar socio-economic profiles (HMIE, 2006), indicating that other phonics instruction might be more effective.

Despite its findings being questionable, Johnston and Watson's (2005) study has been highly influential. The United Kingdom's educational agendas have adopted more synthetic approaches in the teaching of decoding skills as published in the *Independent Review of the Teaching of Early Reading* (Rose, 2006) and the Department for Education's curricula framework from 2013. Likewise, the United States Board of Education initiated the No Child Left Behind Act (2002) shortly after the publication of the National Reading Panel's (2000) findings. Even though the panel found that effective

phonics instruction needed to be explicit and systematic rather than adhere to a specific approach, the NCLB Act supports synthetic phonics programmes. In order to further comprehend the terms 'systematic' and 'explicit' and the frequent association of these terms with synthetic phonics, Mesmer and Griffith (2005) conducted a teacher survey. Instead of linking these terms to a specific approach, the teachers' responses indicated that they interpreted systematic and explicit as any instruction that was organised, engaging and responsive, but most importantly linked to on-going assessment. Thus, effective teaching is explicit and systematic but it focuses on the individual learner and their ability to attain decoding skills rather than the specific approach utilised in teaching these skills. However, by using the Simple View of Reading as a model of the cognitive processes required for reading, decoding must be accompanied with comprehension skills for reading to occur.

2.2 Teaching Reading Comprehension

Reading involves more than merely decoding words. "Reading involves recognizing words and then understanding the individual and collective meanings of those words with the ultimate goal of being able to get to the meaning of the text" (Mesmer & Griffith, 2005, p. 367). According to Tennent (2015), comprehension can be categorised into three domains—linguistic processes, knowledge factors and cognitive and metacognitive processes, which interact to produce meaning. Prior to starting to decode, an individual already has knowledge of the linguistic features of language through speech and they have developed knowledge and schemas of the world around them (Harrison, 2004). As they begin reading, individuals frame the information in the text with this existing knowledge to construct new meaning. During this meaning construction, the individual also metacognitively focuses on the on-going comprehension process itself, a process called comprehension monitoring (Kinnunen, Vaurus, & Niemi, 1998). In comprehension monitoring, Vellutino (2003) argues that the individual evaluates their successful employment of different reading skills as they read text. They make these evaluations of success based on their reading's uniformity to their knowledge of the world and linguistics.

Despite its equal position in the Simple View of Reading, comprehension often receives less attention than decoding due to advocates often interpreting this as a linear formula (Tennent, 2015). Perfetti, Marron and Foltz (1996) are among these linear formula advocates. These advocates propose that an individual has a limited mental and attention capacity to process language for which both elements must compete because the decoding process requires concentrated effort that leaves little mental capacity for comprehension to occur. As decoding becomes effortless, the individual's mental capacity can be dedicated to comprehending the text (Perfetti, et. al., 1996; Pressley & Allington, 2014). This concept has led to the prominence of decoding instruction, especially in early education, with the belief that effective decoding instruction would naturally lead to increased comprehension. In a study of the reading skills of first grade students, decoding skills were found to assist in the effectiveness of comprehension monitoring (Kinnunen, et. al., 1998). Pressley and Allington (2014) argue that comprehension requires word recognition fluency, which develops from effective decoding instruction along with extensive reading.

However, Nguyen, Binder, Nemier and Ardoin (2014) discovered that many of the Year 2 students involved with their study were performing the skills required for reading, such as decoding with fluency, in a state of mindlessness. Similarly, De Milliano, Ilona, Van Gelderen, Amos and Sleegers (2016) found that low-attaining Year 8 readers did not self-monitor their reading. Thus, proficiency in decoding a text does not equate to comprehending it, especially in the case of low-attaining readers. In their study of comprehension, the National Reading Panel (2000) analysed over two hundred projects in which all but two reported on the necessity of teaching comprehension skills as they do not naturally emerge. Upon reviewing the history and research conducted on the topic, Pearson (2009) revealed that these studies all agreed that "all students benefit from teachers' conscious efforts to teach comprehension skills" (p.16).

In formulating an agenda to discover the best time and method to teach these skills, Reading and Development Corporation or RAND (2002) concluded that ensuring that all students are able to read proficiently by third grade is not adequate as many of these students will not continue to progress without "explicit, well-designed" comprehension instruction as texts increasingly become more demanding (p. 24). Likewise, Tennent

(2015) refutes the practice advocated by those with a linear view of waiting until decoding skills are mastered before teaching comprehension skills, especially in the case of low-attaining readers as this could lead to comprehension skills not being taught until secondary school. Thus, comprehension skills must be taught explicitly and this instruction should occur in primary school, regardless of whether or not decoding skills have been mastered.

In their analysis of the studies pertaining to comprehension, the National Reading Panel (2000) discovered that thirty-nine of these cases focused on teaching multiple strategies. In Harrison's (2004) review of these reports, he states, "the evidence that strategy instruction leads to improvements in comprehension is impressive" (p. 90). Although these strategies differ according to the study, the strategies first developed by Palincsar and Brown (1984) which have been highlighted by many as to their importance to the reading comprehension are summarising, questioning, clarifying and predicting (Harrison, 2004). Others have included constructing mental images, using prior knowledge, identifying important ideas and interpreting as comprehension strategies (Keene & Zimmerman, 2007; Pressley, 2006). Bouffard-Bouchard (1994) suggests that the mere knowledge of the existence of these strategies will make individuals more effective readers. Similarly, in their study of low-attaining secondary readers, De Milliano et. al. (2016) found that the addition of tasks requiring the explicit use of these strategies resulted in many of them successfully monitoring their comprehension.

As they involve an intangible process, the determination of the most effective method to teach these strategies can be difficult. Vygotsky, a psychologist and the founder of socio-cultural theory (Lantolf, 2000), believed that an individual's thoughts materialise during their interactions with others. First, an individual develops knowledge socially by the demonstration of a skill by a more knowledgeable other; then, they exhibit this skill individually. By working independently, the student can reach a certain potential; this potential is greatly increased by working with a more knowledgeable other (Vygotsky, 1978). The area between these two potentials is termed 'the zone of proximal development' and is one of Vygotsky's most widely known theories (1978). In order to link these two areas of the known and the unknown, the teacher uses a process of "scaffolding" (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). This process involves the teacher

gradually introducing the steps of the learning process according to the learner's advancing capabilities. This process of development is especially noticeable in "the processes involved with reading comprehension that, far from being natural, have their origins in an individual's interactions with more knowledgeable others" (Gavelek & Bresnahan, 2009, p. 140).

Commonly incorporated in reading and comprehension instruction, reciprocal training is centred upon the scaffolding process (Harrison, 2004; Palincsar & Brown, 1988). Palincsar and Brown (1988) conducted numerous studies in attempt to find the most effective method of teaching comprehension and highlighted reciprocal training. Reciprocal training involves teachers and students taking turns reading and summarising, questioning, clarifying and making predictions about texts. Initially, the students assume a very passive role in observing the vocalised thought processes that their teacher conducts as they read a passage. Tennent, Reedy, Hobsbaum and Gamble (2016) identify two necessary practices that a teacher must utilise during this scaffolding process. Firstly, the teacher needs to control elements of the task to enable them to concentrate on aspects that require further teaching. Secondly, the teacher must gradually relinquish their role as the student gains mastery of the different processes. In Palincsar and Brown's (2004) pilot case study involving the reciprocal training of low-attaining seventh grade readers, the students experienced a substantial increase in their scores on privately read assessments and these levels remained stable six months after the training sessions and similar findings were replicated in two of their other studies. Even though these findings highlight the success of this method, it is questionable whether it could prove an effective method in teaching low-attaining secondary school readers comprehension skills.

2.3 Needs of Low-attaining Readers

When attempting to understand the reading experiences of secondary students, a question arises as the reason for some of these students being able to acquire reading skills with apparent ease while others find it more difficult. The majority of students will attain reading skills regardless of the programme or approach employed (Sanders, 2001; Hulme

& Snowling, 2011). By utilising the Simple View of Reading (Gough & Tunmer, 1986) as a model to understand the cognitive processes involved, students who are not reading to a standard attributed to their age experience difficulties attaining decoding and/or comprehension skills, with a disorder with decoding being the most recognised.

By secondary school, most low-attaining readers have been provided with intervention methods in their primary schools; those who are yet to attain reading skills are "referred to assessment … on suspicion of dyslexia" (Beech, 1997, p. 1). Many students tend to be informally classified as dyslexic at some point by parents or educators (Elliott and Grigorenko, 2014) in belief that this diagnosis will identify a problem, solution and reconfirm their child's intelligence. As many students will be given an informal or formal dyslexic diagnosis by secondary school, any study pertaining to low-attaining secondary school readers must consider whether the same intervention methods for low-attaining readers will also be applicable to individuals diagnosed with conditions, such as dyslexia.

Although many dyslexic students will only be informally assessed, it is even difficult to rely on formal assessments, when they are used, to diagnose accurately or to decide what they are actually diagnosing. Many dyslexic assessments are not measuring the same thing due to a lack of consensus as to the actual meaning of dyslexia (Siegel & Lipka, 2008). Many define dyslexia as a learning disability or disorder characterised by a discrepancy between cognitive capabilities and reading attainment (Beech, 2006; Beech & Singleton, 1997; Snowling, 2009). While low-attaining readers that have higher IQs are deemed as dyslexic, those with lower IQs have historically been seen as "poor" or "backward" readers (Beech & Singleton, 1997; Yule, Rutter, Berger, & Thompson, 1974). Students are able to develop coping skills to conceal any issues (Reid, 2012) as well as the identification of all of their symptoms, such as memory and comprehension issues (Elliott & Gibbs, 2008). This definition of dyslexia is criticised for being unstable in its determination of average ability level (Beech 2006; Stanovich & Siegel, 1994) as well as its inability to answer for the same information-processing difficulties experienced by both poor readers and dyslexic students (Stanovich, 1999). As both groups indicated in this view of dyslexia require extensive assistance in understanding

their reading material, the intervention method required for both is the same-- systematic comprehension instruction (Snowling & Hulme, 2012),

Another definition of dyslexia is "a primary difficulty with reading and spelling single words in learning and using the coding system for representing spoken words in their written form" (Backhouse, 2005, p. 17). Snowling and Hulme (2011) further identify dyslexia as a reading problem associated with basic decoding and recoding, or spelling, skills. Sanders (2001) reports that "many of these children do learn a great deal of the code, but they are missing particular elements, which makes it impossible to decode the new, unfamiliar words they come across in more advanced reading material" (p. 51). With their basic knowledge and their learned coping strategies, teachers can believe that these children are competent readers without close observation. In order to rectify these issues and increase their reading skills, these low-attaining readers need to receive coding instruction on the particular elements that they are missing which are located in individualised systematic phonics programmes. Even though many agree with this definition, they believe that it negates the necessity of the dyslexic label (Elliott & Gibbs, 2008) as both poor readers and those previously categorised as dyslexic have these symptoms and they all require systematic phonics instruction.

Others have adopted more inclusive definitions; the Rose Report (2009), whose definition the British Dyslexic Association (2015) adopted, state that dyslexia is "a learning difficulty that primarily affects the skills involved with accurate and fluent word reading and spelling" (Rose, 2009, p. 30). There are two problems with this definition. First, it fails to distinguish dyslexia from any other reading disability. Second, it gives no useful means to accurately diagnose dyslexia as criticised by the Science and Technology Committee of the House of Commons (2009). When considering low-attaining readers, labels become irrelevant and intervention methods take centre stage and the teaching methods deemed necessary by its numerous definitions are requisite for all readers who experience difficulties with decoding. Thus, any low-attaining student developing decoding skills requires the same instruction regardless of whether or not they have been diagnosed as dyslexic.

Although numerous studies have concentrated on individuals who have experienced difficulties with the decoding component, only one study has investigated secondary low-attaining students with comprehension issues (Ricketts, Sperring & Nation, 2014). However, estimates indicate that over 10 per cent of students in the UK have reading difficulties specific to comprehension (Snowling, Stothard, Clarke, Bowyer-Crane, Harrington, Truelove, et. al., 2009) but these often times go unnoticed (Hulme & Snowling, 2011). In a study investigating secondary students with specific comprehension and decoding issues, Catts, Adolf and Ellis-Weismer (2006) found that the students with comprehension issues had scored poorly on their primary school language scores and the scores from both groups indicated that their scores implied strengths and weaknesses were in different areas than the students with decoding issues, indicating that both groups had different underlying issues. In their attempt to discover effective means to intervene, Clarke, Snowling, Truelove and Hulme (2010) explored the effects of utilising three different interventions centred on reciprocal training. While the intervention including additional oral language instruction was found to be the most successful, all three reciprocal training interventions experienced significant increases in the students' comprehension (Clarke, et. al., 2010), suggesting that reciprocal training is the most effective method to teach comprehension to all learners. Thus, all low-attaining secondary students can benefit from explicit, individualised decoding instruction and the reciprocal training of comprehension skills regardless of whether they have received a diagnosis of a particular disability, such as dyslexia. Even though explicit and systematic teaching of decoding and comprehension can benefit all learners, it must be individualised to meet their needs. On-going assessment is required to discern these needs, to individualise instruction and to determine whether these teaching methods have been successful and these skills have been attained.

2.4 Individualising Instruction and Assessing Levels of Attainment

Even though explicit decoding and comprehension are beneficial to all students, assessment evaluates the effectiveness of this instruction and makes the individual's

successful attainment of these skills the focus. When considering the numerous and robust debates regarding the reading process, it is not surprising that these perspectives are echoed in assessment methods as "the paradigm determines what counts as evidence, what observations are relevant, and even what is observed" (Sainsbury, 2006, p. 2). While some assessments employ a psychological approach and attempt to simplify and dissect the reading process to its parts, others follow a constructivist and holistic approach to reading a whole text. These pedagogical approaches are "a reflection of the needs and values of the education system at the time, which themselves arise from the prevailing attitudes and requirements of society in general" (Whetton, 2006, p. 102) and must be considered in determining construct validity.

In addition, consideration must be given to the feasibility of accurately assessing the complex processes of decoding and comprehension. "Decoding is an isolable ability, which can be taught and assessed in straightforward ways. Comprehension, in contrast, is a complex skill that depends on a variety of factors…" (Kintsch & Kintsch, 2005, p. 83). It is impossible to see comprehension as it happens. Despite decades of scholars' best efforts, they are only left with indirect manifestations of the process and each of these indicators carries "a cost, one that can be measured by the inferential distance between the evidence and the phenomenon itself; [although] advances in comprehension assessment have… narrowed the distance between evidence and the process" (Pearson & Hamm, 2006. p. 92). These refined measurements provide evidence, albeit indirect, of the reading phenomenon.

In order to assess reading, the most effective method is questionable as assessment techniques can vary from formal standardised tests, which attempt to assess objectively, to more informal techniques that utilise highly subjective elements. Generally, formal assessments are summative and evaluate a student's learning at a given point in time, while informal techniques are formative and inform a teacher's instruction. However, Harlen (2007) argues that "rather than a dichotomy between formative and summative purposes," there "is a dimension of assessment purposes from the purely formative to the purely summative" (p. 121). Therefore, in my study, these assessments are differentiated by the informal or formal, standardised methods employed in conducting them, rather than their purpose. "Data from both formal and informal assessments are critical for

teachers to make important instructional decisions" (Schumm & Arguelles, 2006b, p. 10). Norm-referenced tests are formal, summative assessments that compare a student's performance with that of their peers and are "typically recommended… as screening tools (to be followed with measures more appropriate for individual assessment)" (Schumm & Arguelles, 2006a, p. 42). As these tests are given to a large population, a standardised and easily administered assessment is generally given. In determining which assessment measurements were most effective for comprehension, the cloze procedure became popular twenty years ago due to the ease of its administration but has since lost popularity. However, Gellert and Elbro (2013) report data from their recent research which indicates that short cloze assessments produce almost identical results to longer comprehension assessments which can be difficult to oversee, making cloze procedures a valuable tool in testing large groups.

After determining which students are performing below their peers, individual assessments are especially important as Cizek (2011) reports that standardised tests are not capable of providing sufficient detail about an individual's needs. Even though norm-referenced assessments provide a means to diagnose and quantify achievement, personal effort and progress become secondary and ignore other important aspects of the learning process. "Ipsative assessment means that the self is the point of reference and not other people or external standards and personal learning and individual progress replace the competitive and selective function of assessment" (Hughes, 2014, p. 72). By focussing on an individual's progress, ipsative assessments can decrease the feelings of competition fostered by standardised assessments.

In order to expose the depth of the individual and their learning, Afflerbach (2005) advises that these assessments are informal and need to closely resemble the student's daily reading experience. Additionally, "the closer assessment procedures are to everyday classroom activities, the more valid results will be" (Coles, 2006). A running record, or Curriculum-Based Measure, is an assessment format that was initially designed by Clay (1993) as a more constructive and informal means of designing curriculum than standardised tests. In a running record, a student is observed reading several levelled abstracts from authentic texts graduating in difficulty until they reach less than a 95% accuracy rate. During these observations, the examiner should create a record of errors

for miscue analysis. These errors include submissions, omissions, insertions, self-corrections, repetitions, and teacher-assistance (Combs, 2012). As these errors can be attributed to numerous factors, on-going assessments are required to ensure that appropriate interventions have been assigned to successfully reduce the individual's errors.

An additional consideration of running records are the levelled passages that are employed. Text readability has motivated a great deal of research for over a century and several formulas were produced in the middle of the twentieth century (Begeny & Greene, 2014) to enable objective and reliable results, such as the Simplified Measure of Gobbledygook Readability Formula (McLaughlin, 1969) and the Dale-Chall formula (Dale & Chall, 1948) which are geared towards students over Year 4. Although these formulas can be a valuable tool, they also have their limitations as more subjective items necessary to comprehension are not assessed, such as text structure and cohesion, conceptual difficulty and reader motivation and background (Janan & Wray, 2013; Pitcher & Fang, 2007). Levelling attempts to join both the subjective and objective elements, which many teachers and programmes rely on, but it has its weaknesses. Recognition of these limitations is important but as these assessments are individualised and informal, "reliability is of less concern" than in standardised assessments as Stobart (2006) further explains:

> Because consistency across students is unimportant, different students with similar outcomes may need different feedback to 'close the gap' in an individual's learning and part of the teacher's skill is deciding what feedback is most likely to do this (p. 173).

As the running record provides a direct assessment of fluency and decoding, it also provides an indirect and accurate measurement of comprehension. "Although there is little variance in very low scores on fluency and comprehension, they will covary by necessity because decoding and fluency enable comprehension, that is, there can be no comprehension if the words cannot be read" (Paris, Carpenter, Paris, Paris, & Hamilton, 2005, p. 137). Research of running records has produced scores that indicate high

concurrent validity with comprehension assessments, especially cloze measurements (Stahl & Hiebert, 2005).

Even though these informal and formal assessments provide a means of determining an individual's cognitive needs and enable explicit instruction to be individualised to meet these needs, they are insufficient. Afflerbach and Cho (2010) report that the cognitive strategies that standardised and classroom assessments have tended to focus throughout the history of reading assessment "is a misinterpretation of the construct of reading" (p. 497). The potential that other characteristics, such as self-concept and self-esteem, have to influence reading development deem that "assessment of affect should be a priority, yet it isn't" (Afflerbach & Cho, 2010, p. 497), suggesting that the influence of emotional aspects must also be considered.

2.5 Motivating Readers to Engage with Text

While the identification and analysis of an individual's decoding and comprehension skills is important, the socio-cultural perspective indicates that effective reading instruction encompasses more than the cognitive formula provided by the Simple View of Reading. According to Combs (2012), there is an additional "essential element that undergirds all the others— *engagement"* (p. 222). In the process of reading, engagement is the reader's cognitive, emotional and social involvement with the text. This involvement can exist on various levels. Watkins and Coffey (2004) propose that in order to become effective readers, students must have the skill and the will to read. This suggests that engaging in the activity of reading is more than holding a book or having reading skills. Combs (2012) defines engagement as being dependent on ability and motivation, along with prior experiences and self-efficacy. Therefore, the task of increasing a student's engagement with reading needs to address these different elements.

Motivation is the trigger for action and Schunk, Meece and Pintrich (2013) further distinguished it as "the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained" (p. 5). The drive that initially causes the individual to instigate this action is influenced by sources that are either internal or external to the individual. Intrinsically

motivated students read for enjoyment and interest (Combs, 2012) and they read frequently (De Naeghel, et. al., 2014; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Extrinsically motivated students read in response to external controls such as assessments, assignments, competitions and avoidance of punishment (Combs, 2012); their motivation is not related to the task of reading but in obtaining the desirable outcome that awaits them when the task is completed. According to Wang and Guthrie (2004), intrinsically motivated students comprehend and read more than their extrinsically motivated peers and they self-initiate reading experiences, making intrinsic motivation the ideal.

When an individual is introduced to an activity, they begin to produce mental constructs, such as individual goals, self-beliefs, values, interests and perceptions of their social context that they associate with an activity, such as reading (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). These mental constructs elicit an internal drive to participate in the activity that determines their degree of intrinsic motivation. An individual's motivation to read begins to be established when they are first exposed to literature. According to Vygotsky (1978), the formation of any concept is based on their relations with other humans as they provide "tools" that help them "mediate" their thinking in regards to the object (p. 7).

As a parent or caregiver generally initiates a child's first interactions with literature, they model the interest and value level that their child first mentally attaches to the activity. Leseman and De Jong (2001) report that the importance of these initial interactions cannot be "underestimated." Even as the child begins school, the parent or caregiver continues to play a pivotal role as the social interactions of household life continue to provide them with "funds of knowledge" that act as a foundation to mediate their perceptions of life around them (Gonzalez, Moll & Greenberg, 2005). Edwards (2007) reports that parents' behaviour can continue to impact their children as they grow older by reinforcing the literacy instruction given in school, ensuring that children read at home, modelling the behaviour themselves, providing an atmosphere conducive to reading, maintaining a positive attitude towards reading and making different reading materials available to their child.

Although numerous studies have been conducted in regards to parental involvement, most of these involve younger children. This could indicate that parental involvement

becomes substantially less prominent when their children complete the levelled reader programmes that are popular in many schools; most of these programmes require parents to read daily with their children. One of the limited studies involving older students indicates that fifteen-year-olds benefitted greatly from reading with their parents (OECD, 2009) suggesting that parental involvement remains an important factor throughout their child's school life.

However, dissimilarities exist between some of the limited studies pertaining to these older students. According to Hall and Coles's (1999) study on the reading habits of children aged 10 to 14, there is little relationship between these adolescents' positive attitude towards reading and seeing their parents read. In contrast, a survey of 17,089 eight to sixteen-year-olds reports that those who see their parents read are twice as likely to have a positive attitude towards reading and of their own reading skills, as well as a tendency to read more frequently than peers who do not (Clark, 2011). These discrepancies could suggest that merely seeing their parents read is not construed as having a positive attitude towards reading unless coupled with other behaviours. In order to examine the relationship between parents and the reading habits of older children, Klauda (2009) conducted a review of the limited studies involving students from 8 to 14. Despite the majority of these studies indicating a positive correlation between parental support and their child's attitude towards reading, there were conflicting results, suggesting that the specific ways that parents exhibit their support need to be examined in more depth.

In a study of Key Stage 3 students who read for pleasure and those who did not, Strommen and Mates (2004) identified particular practices of parents of avid readers. Although parents of both groups encouraged their children to read to some degree, the parents of avid readers also recommended, bought and discussed books with their children. In terms of specific behaviours, the National Literacy Trust's survey revealed that positive attitudes towards reading related to their parent's attempts to encourage their children to read, their access to reading material and a desk, as well as the frequency of their family's conversations about reading material (Clark, 2011). While Hall and Coles (1999) also report that book ownership relates significantly to the amount that a child reads and their perception of their reading skills, they found a connection to family and

report a significant relationship between a child's positive reading habits and those of their sibling's, not surprising as they would likely experience similar household lives, witness the same behaviour of their parents and share access to reading material. In a study examining the culture created by households in 27 countries, Evans, Kelley, Sikora and Treiman (2010) concluded that the scholarly culture created by parents having books in the home correlated significantly to their child's attitude towards reading and education and that this correlation was stronger than their socio-economic situation and their parent's education.

Much of the importance of the parental role to motivate lies within their ability to promote their child's view of reading as valuable to their parent's life, their own future and life in general. Within an individual and society, concepts exist regarding which tasks are desirable and worth their attempts to master and which are not; these conceptions of value influence the thoughts, behaviours and motivations of the individual (Rokeach, 1979; Schunk, et. al., 2013). The value that an individual assigns to a specific task, or its task value, helps to determine their choices, persistence and performance level in association to the task (Durik, Vida & Eccles, 2006). According to Eccles and Wigfield (1995), task value is composed of the individual's perspective of four factors: attainment value (the importance of doing well on a task), intrinsic interest (the enjoyment that they experience when doing the task or the interest that the task holds for them), utility value (the tasks' usefulness towards achieving their future goals) and the cost belief (the perceived negative aspects of engaging in the task, as it will hinder them in engaging in other tasks). These four components work together to determine an individual's motivation to read. Thus, the task value that an individual associates with reading would indicate an individual's motivation to choose to participate in the activity of reading; their motivation to persist when they encounter difficulties while reading and the performance level that they are motivated to reach.

Of the four components associated with determining the task value associated with reading, interest is an internal concept that plays the most influential role in creating intrinsic motivation (Hidi & Renninger, 2006). While students begin school with high intrinsic motivation for academic learning, this has a tendency to decline throughout their

school years (OECD, 2009), specifically in the area of reading. This decline is observed in both academic and recreational reading. However, PIRLS literacy tests (2006) have indicated that a student's desire to read for enjoyment correlates significantly to their level of ability. Furthermore, the importance of reading for pleasure has been included in the national curriculum (DfE, 2013), indicating that an understanding of student's textual preferences and interests is crucial.

As students begin school, they show interest in numerous subjects and topics but these interests gradually become more limited by the end of primary school (McKenna, 1986). In a survey of children aged 10, 12 and 14, children in all three groups reported dwindling interests in texts relating to school, animal, sports and comedy with increasing interests in romance and periodicals and no alterations to the tastes of the individuals who enjoyed science fiction, horror, war and crime (Hall & Coles, 1999). In their study examining the reading habits of adolescent boys, Smith and Wilhelm (2002) deemed it necessary to broaden their participants' narrow view of what constituted text, which meant that they were reading more frequently than suspected. This also highlighted their enjoyment of the reading associated with gaming, as well as their preferences for realistic books that were challenging and had relatable characters. Hall and Coles (1999) also found that "two-thirds of the children who see themselves as reading 'only a little' do read periodicals" (p. 67), suggesting that children do not consider texts that are not conventional books in their reports of reading.

Logically, students will show more interest and will focus more on texts that they find enjoyable; a secondary teacher's role in permitting student's autonomy in selecting reading material is significant to increasing their student's intrinsic motivation to read. Studies involving elementary and secondary schools that offered this autonomy lead to increases in students' interests and the time that they spent reading as they chose to read these materials outside of the classroom (Guthrie & Humenick, 2004). Maynard, MacKay and Smythe (2008) report that seventy percent of secondary students receive recommendations and the majority of these recommendations come from friends or female family members. These texts often include literature that a teacher might find unbefitting to the classroom, such as popular fiction and texts that have direct links to

other media (Cavazos-Kottke, 2006). These selections can increase their intrinsic motivation to read in the classroom as well as in their homes which will lead to an improvement of their reading abilities, making it significant to the secondary classroom. Unfortunately, the opposite situation often occurs; Hafen and his colleagues (2012) propose that secondary students are given less autonomy in classrooms, especially later in the school year when they prepare for final assessments.

While a student's intrinsic motivation declines as they advance in school year level, McCardle, Chhabra and Kapinus (2008) report a tendency for extrinsic motivation to increase, correlating with secondary schools' substantial focus on performance goals and standardised tests. The provision of external rewards can undermine intrinsic motivation for reading as it suggests that the activity is not rewarding in itself and the purpose of participating is to receive the external reward (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999). However, Lin, McKeachie and Kim's (2003) declare that extrinsic motivation does not hinder intrinsic motivation when it exists at a relatively high level. As students with higher intrinsic motivation levels generally read more recreationally and have higher reading attainment levels, this could suggest that students with the intrinsic motivation levels of higher reading abilities will not be affected by extrinsic motivational devices. On the other hand, students with lower levels of reading attainment may lose intrinsic motivation when extrinsic motivational devices are incorporated, suggesting that intrinsic motivation needs to be the focus when working with low-attaining readers.

Throughout their school career, the differences between the positive feelings that low-attaining students associate with reading in comparison to their high-attaining peers widen as they become older (Clark, 2011; McKenna, Kear, & Ellsworth, 1995). Ability and motivation are interdependent and inseparable (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000); any attempt to increase a student's attainment level needs to be comprised of cognitive and motivational elements. Research has indicated that reading interventions which focus on both motivation and cognitive abilities experience greater success (Guthrie, McGough, Bennett, & Rice, 1996; Medford & McGeown, 2012). McCardle et. al. (2008) state, "Promoting intrinsic motivation at the same time reading skills are being developed is a crucial part of instruction" (p. 212). When this instruction is effective and a student's

level of motivation and attainment increases, the interdependency of these two elements helps to further assist the student. When students are motivated and participate in the action of reading, the reciprocal nature of this relationship is further witnessed as the knowledge attained acts as a further motivator in the future (Pintrich, 2003; Unrau & Quirk, 2014). As students begin to view themselves as competent readers, they are able to create their own goals and reward system (Pajares, 2008) which act as other motivational devices. Therefore, to enable low-attaining students to meet their ultimate goal of reading proficiency, any intervention must consider a student's skills and their motivation. As students become older, the necessity at attempting to increase their intrinsic motivation becomes even more significant.

Although increasing a student's ability and their motivation to read is important, their engagement with the text is the ultimate goal. As stated at the beginning of this section, engagement is the reader's cognitive, emotional and social involvement with the text. Combs (2012) argues that engagement is not synonymous with the term motivation. Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) further clarify that motivation is the driving force behind engagement. Once the student is motivated to begin and continue with the task of reading, their cognitive abilities enable them to become involved with the text. These motivational and cognitive processes are of parallel importance to the reader's comprehension of the text (Pressley & Allington, 1999) and occur when the student is fully engaged in the reading process. Much like motivation, engagement is not a product; it is a process that cannot be observed directly.

The occurrence of the process is suggested by an individual's actions. According to Guthrie and Wigfield (2000), one of these actions is the deliberate employment of cognitive strategies, such as asking the comprehension questions learned through scaffolding, to aid in their comprehension. Additionally, a student's engagement is exhibited in their social interactions with others as they discuss and construct meaning from their text (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). This ensures that the dialogue between the reader and text are occurring which Westbrook (2013) deemed as necessary to developing a final interpretation of the text. On-task behaviour is another indication that a reader is engaged with the text (Hafen, et. al., 2012; Reschly & Christenson, 2012; Tobin, 1984); this behaviour can be visually observed in the reader's actions or the

amount of material that they read. The amount an individual reads could also be an indication of motivation. Motivation, especially intrinsic motivation, is essential to engagement in the reading process (McCardle et. al., 2008), whereas engagement is not a necessity for motivation to occur. For example, if an individual is only motivated to read a text, they are just reading words. If this motivation to read leads to their engagement with the text, they will become involved with these words and begin to create meaning from them.

To reach this desirable outcome and for children to become engaged readers, it is not enough just to address their cognitive and motivational needs. Medford and McGeown (2012) suggest that the best method to increase motivation is to focus on addressing their skill deficits and their perceptions of themselves as readers. An effective reading intervention for low-attaining adolescents needs to ensure that not only can they access texts but that they view themselves as readers, thus strengthening the reader and text relationship.

2.6 Students' Perceptions of Themselves as Readers

By the time that older low-attaining students finally receive instruction that will meet their individual needs, they have already experienced years of frustration as they have struggled to access the teaching methods previously employed in the classroom. Dweck and Leggett (1988) attempted to uncover the common traits between participants who failed and those who succeeded at a given task and they developed two notions for understanding intelligence and achievement. According to the "incremental theory," individuals envision intelligence as something that can be "cultivated," whereas the "entity theory" relates to individuals with a static notion of intelligence who believe that it is a "fixed trait" (Dweck, 2013, pp. 2-3). When encountering new situations, individuals with a "growth mindset" embrace challenge and are willing to accept assessments of their abilities in order to assist their learning. In contrast, their "fixed mindset" counterparts avoid any situation that could potentially expose them as incompetent and in situations that cannot be avoided, "some outcomes are magnified,

others explained away" to preserve their predetermined notions of themselves (Dweck, 2017, p. 11).

As Dweck (2013) correlates success to individuals with a growth mindset, it could be assumed that secondary students who have yet to attain reading skills, despite their involvement in numerous interventions, would generally have fixed mindsets. In order to experience success, it seems that their perceptions of intelligence must change and failure must be viewed differently. If they do not change their perceptions of failure, their previous negative experiences with intervention will be predetermined as futile. By developing a growth mindset, these negative experiences merely represent a starting point that can be surpassed through effort, strategy and other's assistance. Dweck, Walton and Cohen (2014) found that explicit instruction of the malleability of intelligence and self-control strategies, along with helping students feel valued and a sense of belonging, were successful in changing an individual's mindset.

Even when an individual has developed a growth mindset, they may hold different views of their own intelligence (Castella & Byrne, 2015). In order to exert the great effort needed to cultivate growth, an individual needs to believe that their efforts will be productive. Bandura (1997) argues that while an individual's belief in the developmental nature of ability is beneficial to ensuring a positive outcome, it is an insufficient unless coupled with the belief that one is capable and has the motivation to put forward the effort required to perform the task. While Dweck, et. al. (2014) support the function of a student's belief in their academic ability and motivation, they minimalise the concept of self- efficacy by referring to it as "fragile" (p.5). Despite its fragility, many researchers have found that a student's perception of themselves and their reading abilities are so closely associated that these perceptions can act as an accurate predictor of an older student's reading ability (Bandura, 1997; Black, 1974; Burns, 1982; Schunk & Pajares, 2009), representing the significance of self-perceptions to an individual's academic success.

In the educational setting, the terms self-concept and self-efficacy are frequently used when considering a person's perception of themselves. Self-concept is a term comprised of three aspects: self-image, ideal self and self-esteem (Lawrence, 2006). Turner (1999)

elaborates that the self-concept is a composite of intrapersonal and interpersonal notions in his self-categorisation theory. This very broad definition does not recognise the complexity of an individual, unless it is broken down into pieces that address the multi-dimensional nature of self. These suggested domains recognise the academic, social and physical dimensions of the individual and each of these is further down into subcomponents, such as reading and mathematics (Arens, Yeung, Craven, & Hasselhorn, 2011; Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976). For example, the interpersonal and intrapersonal comparisons an individual makes of their reading skills enables them to construct a view of themselves as readers and relates specifically to their reader self-concept. Arens and her colleagues (2011) report that even at an early age, students' perceptions can vary in each of these domains and their sub-components both cognitively and affectively. Therefore, a negative self-concept or failure in one area does not necessarily mean that this will be reflected in all domains or sub-components, just as a positive self-concept in another area will not equate to a positive self-concept in another. Riffat-un-Nisa, Ghazala and Anjum (2011) found that motivation and self-concept of a sub-component directly correspond to academic achievement in that sub-component. This suggests that only changes in a student's reading self-concept, and not in any other area, would specifically reflect changes in their levels of reading achievement.

In contrast, Bandura (1997) reports that any correlations between self-concept and achievement are weak due to the variations in degree and circumstance of any domain activity. As Bandura (1977) deemed that these weaknesses were caused by the ambiguity of self-concept, he originated the term 'self-efficacy.' Relatively new compared to self-concept, the term self-efficacy is defined as the belief that one has the capability to organise and complete a specific task (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 1997). Brown (1998) reports that "people with high self-efficacy beliefs think they have the ability to succeed at a task, to overcome obstacles and to reach their goals" (p. 135).

Since the term self-efficacy has not existed as long as the terms self-concept or self-esteem, confusion has been created when researchers have attempted to distinguish these terms from one another. There are some significant differences. Firstly, self-efficacy relies much more on the situation and context of a specific task (Schunk & Meece, 2006). Secondly, Bong (2006) reports that the most notable difference is that "adolescents'

academic self-concept is about whether they believe they are good in certain domains based on their past experiences, whereas their academic self-efficacy is about whether they believe they can successfully perform present tasks under the given circumstances" (p. 290). In terms of reading, self-concept might look at a student's belief that they are a good reader, while self-efficacy might consider their belief that they are capable of reading a particular passage in a specific situation. Thirdly, self-concept is strongly based on social comparisons (Bong & Clark, 1999). For instance, an individual might determine their academic self-concept by comparing their past performances to their peers' performances. When deciding how efficacious they will be at performing an unknown task, they might consider their peer's performance or attitude towards the task to establish its difficulty.

Although there are many differences, they are both useful tools in determining an individual's perception of themselves and any changes that might occur to these perceptions in response to an intervention. As self-concept beliefs tend to be "stable over time" and "resistant to change" (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003, p. 29), these beliefs are highly desirable to ensure that the student's self-perceptions and motivation will remain positive long after the study concludes. Unfortunately, making any resilient alterations to self-concept is a lengthy process for the individual and is unrealistic for a somewhat short study. In contrast, Bong & Skaalvik (2003) find that self-efficacy is "dynamic and malleable" (p. 29), making it more responsive to change. Although the concept of self-efficacy is appropriate for the length of the study, it must be determined whether its effects are long-lasting. Any changes in an individual's beliefs of self-efficacy are antecedents of the individual's self-concept development (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003). This is due to the focus of self-efficacy on one of the composite images of self-concept—what we think we can achieve. This component is arguably the most important because it is the piece that calls for action. It is the most closely linked to an individual's motivation. Conversely, Bandura (1997) reports that when measures of self-efficacy are factored out in self-concept scales, they lose their ability to predict a student's behaviour. This indicates that an individual's report of self-concept is largely based on their feelings of self-efficacy and that measures of self-efficacy offer more reliable predictions of a

student's academic achievement although the accuracy of these predictions could be deliberated.

Although discrepancies can exist between a student's self-perceptions and their attainment levels, the ability of these different methods to expose these views accurately must be determined. The majority of studies that have focussed on revealing an individual's beliefs of self have utilised self-report (Bong & Clark, 1999), which can be influenced by both the individual's desire to provide the answers preferred by the researcher and by their confusion of making a judgement without a clear activity in mind. Pajares (1996) argues that these reports can often be inaccurate as individuals can be over-confident. Reports of the metacognitive processes of self-efficacy also have their limitations. As both of these self-constructs are ascertained through self-report, they are both susceptible to these weaknesses. These negative aspects necessitate another method to assist in validating the information that is obtained through self-report. In comparison to self-concept, self-efficacy can be observed and more easily determined due to the specific criterion that it provides both the student and the researcher (Pajares, 1996). Pajares (2008) also deems that this specificity offers the greatest prediction and the best explanation of self-perceptions and their influence on behavioural outcomes in the educational setting.

The specificity of these questions also has its limitations as it could control and weaken the individual's responses. As children enter adolescence and experience the cognitive, physical and social changes associated with this period of life, Schunk and Meece (2006) have found that their self-descriptions are more "abstract, multidimensional and hierarchical" (p. 77). These complexities are made possible due to their ability to handle information and social comparisons that are inconsistent to their previously held self-perceptions. As these views are "more stable and integrated views of their capabilities, value and attributes" (Schunk & Meece, 2006, p. 80), they are desirable but questionnaires would not be able to capture their intricacy. Bong (2006) also proposes the utilisation of open-ended questions over questionnaires to discern the student's expectation for success.

> Some researchers hold a misguided assumption that one must always resort to established items and scales, as that has often been the standard procedure… it is less important what capabilities adolescents believe that they possess than whether they believe that, at the end of their endeavour, they can enjoy success on the given tasks under the given circumstances by successfully applying those capabilities. Research on adolescents' self-efficacy, therefore, must start by asking the right question— "How confident are you that you can successfully perform these tasks?' (p. 301).

By asking questions rather than employing more rigid methods, the student is given the freedom needed to communicate their abstract and complex thinking processes and self-perceptions. Although these reports have their weaknesses, observations of a student performing similar tasks would provide data that is not collected through self-report. In this study, self-efficacy is deemed as a more reliable and observable means, especially when used in conjunction with observation, to reveal a student's evolving self-concept and perceptions of themselves in regards to reading a specific passage. The complexities of the student's perceptions necessitate the utilisation of open-ended questions and an unstructured interview format offer the freedom needed to expose these complex thoughts. Afterwards, these observations and student responses can be assessed according to their ability to reveal the generalisation of these skills to other contexts and materials. Even though these methods furnish adolescents with the freedom to reveal the complexity of their self- perceptions, their peers provide the social context from which these perceptions are formed. As peers hold a position of more significance to this age group than any other (Ehrlinger, et. al., 2016), an intervention designed for adolescents must consider the prominent role that peers play.

2.7 The Role of Peers

In order to more fully understand the formation of a low-attaining adolescent reader's self-perceptions and to change their negative views of reading and their reading abilities, it is necessary to examine their social surroundings, such as their classroom and peers,

and the source from which these interpersonal and intrapersonal comparisons are made. According to Brown (1998), "the comparative nature of self-views means that people must rely heavily on the social world when seeking to understand who they are and what they are like" (p. 54) and two processes contribute significantly in creating an individual's self-view.

The first of these processes is that of social comparison, a concept pioneered by Festinger (1954). "Children compare themselves with others and draw inferences about themselves on the basis of what these comparisons show" (Brown, 1998, p. 96). By comparing their levels of attainment to others, they deem the quality of their performance or their level of competence. In social comparisons, the subject against which an individual is making their comparison is significant because they provide a tangible frame of reference from which to base their self-concept (Marsh, 2007).

In a theory named by Davis (1966) as the "frog pond effect," the importance of the subject for comparison is exposed. According to this theory, comparison with an individual with limited skills will lead to more positive perceptions of competency than to compare oneself to someone with an extensive skill level (Liem, Marsh, Martin, Mcinerney, & Yeung, 2013). Generally, these comparisons are based upon others that share similar characteristics to themselves, such as students in the same year group or classroom. By comparing skills to a similar individual, this reduces the wide range of competency levels and provides more informative and relevant results.

Secondly, an individual's self-perceptions are based on the ways that others react towards them. In their observations of others and their responses towards their actions, they construct a view of themselves, a social process termed as 'reflected appraisal.' Cooley (1902) first termed this process the 'looking-glass self' suggesting that an individual envisions themselves based on how others see them. This process is constituted of the individual imagining how they are viewed and evaluated by another individual and the way that they emotionally handle their perceptions. As these are merely based on 'perceptions,' Kenny and De Paulo (1993) attest that these perceptions are often contradictory to the actual views that the other person holds in regards to the individual (Tice & Wallace, 2003). Regardless, it is the perceived appraisals that correlate

significantly to the individual's self-appraisals (Brown, 1998). When these cases involve adolescents and their peers, these correlations can be substantial as they hold their peers' opinions in higher regard than any other age group.

Generally, a student's level of ability and intelligence are similar to the perceptions that they have of these skills. This is especially true of self-efficacy as it stimulates the student to act and utilise these abilities. Students with higher abilities tend to feel that they are able to achieve and be successful more often than their lower achieving peers. While an individual's ability to perform a task and their beliefs of self-efficacy in executing the task normally correspond, they can exist at varying levels. The degree of these variances can generate different results, while the absence of either ability or beliefs of self-efficacy will not lead to the other. "No amount of self-efficacy will produce a competent performance if requisite knowledge and skills are lacking" (Schunk & Meece, 2006, p.73), whereas a highly able student, who feels like they will not be successful, will not want to attempt the task. A slight discrepancy between an individual's ability and their perceptions of these abilities can be extremely beneficial. Often students report higher levels of self-efficacy but Bandura (1997) suggests that this slight discrepancy can be advantageous as this will increase their motivation and persistence to succeed when confronted with difficult tasks. Brown (1998) argues that most average-performing students with high self-efficacy spend more time preparing for tasks that they view as difficult because they deem with this practice they will be able to succeed. This practice results in average-performing students with high beliefs of self-efficacy continually outperforming their peers.

In contrast, some low-attaining readers will not experience any benefits from even a slight discrepancy between their ability level and their perceptions of these abilities (Klassen, 2006). Instead, their overconfidence exposes an unawareness of metacognitive processes and a limited ability to analyse tasks and to distinguish their weaknesses and strengths, which are all necessary for academic success. Without an awareness of their academic weaknesses, these low-attaining students will not prepare sufficiently or incorporate strategies necessary to compensate for these weaknesses and they may fall further behind. This also links to students who do not incorporate the metacognitive process of comprehension monitoring as discussed earlier in this chapter. When a student

performs the task of reading without utilising the cognitive and metacognitive skills of comprehension, they are unaware of any inconsistencies in their performance and believe that they have successfully completed and understood the text (Bouffard-Bouchard, 1994; Glenberg & Epstein, 1985; Wassenburg, Beker, van den Broek & van der Schoot, 2015). In Klassen's (2006) analysis of eighteen self-efficacy studies involving low-attaining students, he found that only one pertained to literacy and these self-efficacy reports were unlike those of any other academic component. While average-performing students significantly underestimated their reading scores, low-attaining students routinely overestimated their reading abilities (Klassen, 2006). Even though both groups have difficulties determining their successful comprehension, only overestimating one's abilities creates issues. As they feel that they have understood, a low-attaining student will not feel impelled to employ other strategies to rectify their failed attempts.

In addition to being a frame of reference to judge levels of competence, peers can provide a sense of belonging. As the transition into secondary school is difficult, a sense of social belonging is of particular significance to secondary students (Ehrlinger, Mitchum and Dweck, 2016). Even when students seem to have prospered, the effects from past negative experiences could remain. Originally, Edwards (1994) began her research to identify the common features of eight sixteen to seventeen-year-old students diagnosed with dyslexia who seemed to cope well emotionally. After conducting interviews and questionnaires, she exposed the discrimination that the boys experienced from teachers and peers. The discrimination was revealed through neglect, violence from teachers, attempts to humiliate, teasing and bullying from peers. In a qualitative study attempting to understand bullying experienced by seventy-five dyslexic adolescents, these same experiences were reported and found most acute during late primary and early secondary school years (Ingesson, 2007). Although these studies might represent extreme cases, they exemplify the types and degree of discrimination and marginalisation that students can be exposed.

Hall (2006) argues that often the behaviours that these students implement to protect themselves from marginalisation are seen as 'laziness' or as them being difficult and problematic and lead to further marginalisation from their peers and teachers. In order to combat these negative self-perceptions, teachers must also recognise and counteract these

images or students will continue to encounter new programmes or approaches at assisting their reading with apathy and resistance (McCabe & Margolis, 2001). When a student has a negative self-perception, they have generally experienced several failing attempts and they do not see themselves as a reader and avoid reading according to this view.

> It is only through a change in the student's perception of him/herself that the student will begin to perceive him/ herself as a good reader, and therefore, only with this will come the motivation to seek out reading matter independently and on so doing rehearse what is learned. Without this corresponding change in the self-concept the student will merely have learned to perform a few tricks with words…he/she will continue with his/her former attitudes towards reading and have the attitude that 'it is not me' (Lawrence, 2006, p. 83).

Without addressing these perceptions, a teacher's attempts to intervene will not succeed because their low-attaining students will not have enough confidence in their skills to read outside of the classroom. Therefore, a teacher needs to find methods to counteract any negativity. Just as failure leads to a negative self-perception, successful experiences will eventually lead to a positive self-perception as the student views themselves as being adequate and believe that they can achieve (Burns, 1982; Tesser, 2003). They will no longer avoid reading and begin reading more frequently inside and outside of the classroom. According to Guthrie and his colleagues (1996), even the book selection process indicates positive self-perceptions and a sense of self-efficacy as the student shows a motivation to read and the expectation and confidence that they have the skills needed in order to understand their selection. Thus, the employment of reading instruction that assessment reflects as effective will provide a positive source for this intrapersonal comparison as students will see themselves as good readers with the ability to comprehend books independently. This will increase their intrinsic motivation. As they read more frequently in and outside of the classroom, they will practise and increase their skills, have more positive experiences with reading and continue building their confidence and feelings of self-efficacy. Along with intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy, there are factors that can increase engagement such as social interaction. Thus, an intervention for secondary low-attaining readers must address more than the cognitive

processes represented by the Simple View of Reading model; there are other emotional and social processes that must be considered in designing an effective intervention. As these skills need to be taught utilising individualised and explicit reciprocal training methods, peer tutoring offers a means to address the complex needs of low-attaining secondary readers while addressing the emotional and social aspects.

2.8 Peer Tutoring as a possible intervention

Unfortunately, many of the interventions employed by teachers and administrators, including staff support, poorly differentiated classroom activity, and "pull-out sessions," do not address all three of these aspects and may lead to low-attaining students being further differentiated from their peers or to not having "the right opportunity to forge the social links with their peers that may protect them from bullying" (Byers, 2012, p. 15). As self-perceptions are largely constructed through interpersonal and intrapersonal comparisons, it is important to provide positive social interactions from which these can be developed. These interactions seem to especially be significant in reading instruction as Franzak (2006) discovered that all adolescents have the need for caring and social relationships to mentor them in literacy skills. These relationships provide a means for negative images to be replaced by positive ones. In addition, social belonging has been found to be of particular significance to adolescents and their academic achievements (Walton & Cohen, 2007). Many researchers have identified peer modelling or tutoring for its ability to meet the demands of the classroom, address self-perception issues and enhance cognitive outcomes (Goodlad & Hirst, 1990; Maheady, 1998; McCabe & Margolis, 2001). De Naeghal and his colleagues (2012) indicate that teachers can be very influential on their students' intrinsic motivation by giving them autonomy, competence and relatedness, which are also found in peer tutoring instruction and relationships.

As there are numerous definitions of peer tutoring, the next question becomes which could be the most effective in meeting the needs of secondary low-attaining reader. Goodlad and Hirst (1989) broadly define it as "the system of instruction in which learners help each other and learn by teaching" (p. 13). This definition generates a sense of partnership, whereas others suggest that there is a stronger sense of inequality in peer

tutoring. In most of these relationships, Graesser, D'Mello and Cade (2011) state, "The tutor is the more knowledgeable about the subject matter and helps the tutee" (p. 408). Generally, these peer tutoring relationships are labelled as 'same-age' or 'cross-age,' although some researchers prefer to further distinguish these labels by addressing ability (King, 1998; Topping, 2005). Same-age tutoring involves partners of equal age who can be equal or slightly different in skill level. In this type of peer tutoring, the role of tutor and tutee is often rotated throughout the session. Cross-age or ability tutoring involves an older, or more knowledgeable, student acting as the tutor and a younger, or less knowledgeable, student as a tutee. Tutors can be performing at or below the level of attainment expected for their year group but they become the expert as they teach material that they have previously mastered. According to proponents of cross-age tutoring, the optimal age difference is two years to decrease the likelihood of disputes, personality clashes and resentment (Goodlad & Hirst, 1990; Sharpley & Sharpley, 1981). In tutoring relationships that consider ability over age, this might need to be considered.

When debating the best type of peer-tutoring, King (1998) indicates that "when same-ability peers are involved, classroom peer learning activities are usually restricted to lower-level learning" (p. 60), whereas Fitz-Gibbon (2006) deliberates on whether the content of cross-ability tutoring can be beneficial to the tutors. As discussed earlier in this chapter, this area between these two potentials, or 'the Zone of Proximal Development' as termed by Vygotsky (1978) acts as driving force for the lower ability students and increases this potential. Tutees participating in this cross-ability tutoring have shown numerous benefits, such as great strengths in vocabulary and comprehension along with increases in confidence and self-perceptions, especially low-attaining students (Miller, Topping, Thurston, 2010; Topping, Miller, Thurston, McGavock, & Conlin, 2011). One reason for the increase in these self-perceptions could stem from the student's transformed focus on their own positive achievements rather than peer comparisons that are often negative reflections upon their own skills.

In addition to assisting low-attaining students, tutors also experience substantial gains in their confidence and self-perceptions (Miller, et. al., 2010; Topping, et.al., 2011). In their trial of paired reading in eighty schools, Topping and his associates (2011) also reported a significant positive difference on long-term evaluations of reading from students, both

tutors and tutees, who participated in cross-age tutoring compared to those that read in same-age pairs or received regular instruction. Other researchers have indicated that tutors make greater cognitive gains than those of their tutees due to the increased responsibility's effect on their confidence and the necessity to know the concepts well enough to teach them (Fantuzzo, Riggio, Connelly, & Dimeff, 1989; King, 1998; Roscoe & Chi, 2007). However, Topping (2005) reports that benefits to tutors can be minimal when there is a great difference between the ability levels of the tutor and tutee, which will terminate in the tutor's boredom and disengagement.

In order to determine whether a student's role had a significant influence on self-esteem, Miller and his colleagues (2010) studied the effects of peer tutoring on the self-perceptions of tutees, same-age and cross-age tutors. Although he found that students' in all three roles experienced similar degrees of increase in their self-esteems, cross-age tutors reported a substantial increase in their self-worth in comparison to same-age tutors and tutees. Cross-age and ability tutors maintain their role as the more knowledgeable throughout the process, suggesting feelings of worth are intensified by being in the position as the more knowledgeable. According to Fitz-Gibbon (2006), students placed into the cross-age tutor role tend to reappraise their abilities in the subject area that they have been given responsibility. Their new reappraisals positively reflect on their more responsible roles. In these new roles, Topping, Campbell, Douglas and Smith (2003) propose that they perform nurturing activities such as modelling and scaffolding that results in their receiving their peer's praise and approval.

Even though tutors often receive positive messages in regards to their value in their relationship, these are often less abundant in tutoring relationships who are similar in age because as Miller and his colleagues (2010) explain:

> The role of helping the young is one that is firmly embedded and respected in most cultures; cross-age peer tutoring is clearly an example of this. In contrast in most primary schools (in the UK at least) working alongside one's peers in the classroom is becoming common practice. Such work involves supporting peers as an integral part of learning activities; it involves processes, which are meant to be of mutual benefit.

> In such cases, the messages about helping the weaker members of society may be diluted by other messages about potential gain for all. (p. 428)

Even though the benefits for cross-age tutors are clear, questions arise as to whether these positive outcomes would also be experienced by cross-ability tutors. The frequency with which their support is necessitated by the tutee would determine the opportunities that they had to offer assistance and increase their self-perceptions. A tutor providing frequent assistance to their tutee would be more likely to view themselves as more advanced in age and skill.

In order to assist in building positive self-perceptions, tutor selection is also of crucial consideration. The relationship that develops between the tutor and tutee can be significant as it is associated with academic outcomes (Fantuzzo & Ginsburg-Block, 1998; Miller, 2005). Fantuzzo and Ginsburg-Block (1998) reported that higher self-reports of a tutee's perceived vision of social acceptance were correlated to their tutor's vocalisation of praise and encouragement while the tutor's negative comments were associated with the tutee's negative views of social acceptance. As these vocalisations are generally positive, several researchers have reported that these occurrences have a tendency to lead to positive social encounters outside of the sessions as the tutee models their tutor's behaviour (Franca, Kerr, Reitz, & Lambert, 1990; Greenwood, Walker, & Hops, 1977; Strain, Kerr, & Ragland, 1981).

In their study, Morrison, Everton, & Rudduck (2000) paired ten low-attaining Year 7 boys to read with Year 9 boys who were chosen from two different groups. One group was composed of five boys who were competent readers and highly esteemed in the school; the second group struggled with reading and behaviour issues. For ten weeks, the pairs read bi-weekly for thirty minutes. Despite a lack of any significant increase in reading attainment, possibly due to the somewhat short length and infrequency of the sessions, they produced successful relationships between the tutor and tutee in both groups. According to Jones, Audley-Piotrowski, Kiefer and Graesser (2012), interactions with friends positively affect an individual's self-perceptions and their academic success. According to Walton and Cohen (2007), feelings of social belonging are of particular

significance to adolescents and can contribute to their academic success, making these relationships significant to students who have previously struggled.

Although successful relationships can be built between high and low-attaining readers, the most suitable candidates for the tutor role are those who have experienced similar issues themselves as they are generally more patient as they often offer assistance in a slower-paced manner (Fitz-Gibbon, 2006). In addition, by choosing previously low-attaining readers as tutors, the tutee is no longer being marginalised (Titchovsky, 2003). They are also given a role model that exhibits a potential image that they feel like they can actually reach (Bar-Eli, 1998; Paterson & Elliot, 2006). Some may worry about low-attaining students being placed in a tutor position becoming bullies as many exhibit behaviour issues. In contrast to this notion, Sutherland and Snyder (2007) reported a significant growth in the relationships of low-attaining tutors and tutees as well as increased motivation and on-task behaviour, which makes these worries seem misplaced as these relationships are based upon cooperation as both the tutor and tutee are working toward the same goal— academic success.

Furthermore, these tutoring roles provide an opportunity for students to be more actively involved with the learning process. Instead of being passive recipients of their teacher's active attempts to educate, students are active participants in the learning process (Wallace, 2015). Their active involvement necessitates that they are also engaged with the process.

> As teachers' and learners' roles alter, so too do the relationships among them, transforming the culture of the classroom. The focus of the classroom becomes learning as a process – a joint supportive enterprise in which everyone has a part to play, and everyone contributes to taking collective responsibility for the activities and their outcomes (Swaffield, 2011, p. 441).

In this relationship, peer tutors become dependent on each other for both the process and the content of what is learned (King, 1998). This increased responsibility holds advantages, as they become empowered to make decisions and goals about their learning, and disadvantages, as they are not experts of the process.

Although peer tutoring provides some positive results, the question must be answered to its benefits in comparison to teacher-directed instruction. Mathes et al. (2003) attempted to answer this question and found that classrooms that employed teacher-directed small group sessions and those utilising peer tutoring showed substantially better scores to those of control groups, although the teacher-directed groups experienced the greatest increase in their scores. These results emphasise the validity of peer tutoring yet query it being more effective than teacher-directed instruction, although the students involved with this case study were all younger students not separated into ability groups. Thus, any results would not consider the benefits of peer tutoring for those who have suffered from the self-esteem and self-efficacy issues that years of struggling with numerous reading programmes produce. In terms of intervention strategies, the Education Endowment Foundation rate peer tutoring as having "high impact for low cost" when considering the pupil premium while one-to-one tuition has "moderate impact for high cost" based on "extensive research" (Higgins et al., 2011), conveying the benefits of peer tutoring.

A method that compromises between these two methods and provides teachers with the ability to maintain some control is the design of the tutoring session's subject matter. The content can be unstructured, which provides the tutor freedom in presenting material, or structured, where the tutor delivers highly structured procedures (Topping, 2005) that are highly individualised for the tutee. Research indicates that structured programmes are most effective (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Topping et al., 2011) and they have the ability to improve the tutee's skills more rapidly (Goodlad & Hirst, 1989). A balance between this type of structured instruction, which is more effective, and an unstructured instruction that promotes self-worth and intrinsic motivation through construction, is the ideal (Chi, Siler, Jeong, Yamauchi & Hausmann, 2001; Fantuzzo, King, & Heller, 1992; Koestner, Ryan, Bernieri, & Holt, 1984); but it can be easily offset.

Unfortunately, many studies report that without structure, tutors and tutees interact at a simple level and are often merely retelling information from the text (Britton, Van Dusen, Glynn, & Hemphill, 1990; King, Staffieri, & Adelgais, 1997; Pressley, McDaniel, Turnure, Wood, & Ahead, 1987; Roscoe & Chi, 2007; Spires, Donley, & Penrose, 1990),

rather than at a level where they are constructing knowledge. In reciprocal training, this can occur to some extent through the tutor observing and imitating the teacher's skills, then tutoring someone else using the structure and procedures that they have learned. In their study, Roscoe and Chi (2007) found that same-ability tutors were capable of utilising these scaffolding procedures with the same success as cross-ability tutors when provided with training and structure. Thus, tutees that have received this training can become successful tutors, regardless of their age or level of attainment, making it possible for them to receive the emotional, emotive and social benefits associated with each role.

2.9 Synthesis of the Literature

As this chapter indicates, the skill of reading is comprised of cognitive and metacognitive processes, as well as emotional and social processes. This chapter has attempted to look at the broad picture, as well as to scrutinise the specific issues pertaining to these processes, in order to identify elements that could prove effective in a reading intervention and to examine the best method for these elements to be taught in the classroom. Although most of these studies were conducted with younger children, the few cases that have involved older and/or low-attaining readers have found similar results. Therefore, I will assume the other outcomes that have not involved older or low-attaining students are also plausible and warrant exploration.

The Simple View of Reading provides a model of the cognitive processes required for reading to occur. Literature indicates that instruction of decoding needs to be systematic, explicit, and individualised, whereas, reciprocal training is the most effective method of teaching comprehension skills. Even though many low-attaining readers have been informally or formally diagnosed with conditions, such as dyslexia, by adolescence, this type of decoding and comprehension instruction remains applicable. The combined employment of both informal, formative and formal, summative assessments maintain the focus on the individual learner and their specific needs. Emotional elements are of equal importance to the reading process as they motivate a student's engagement with the process and the utilisation of cognitive elements. Generally, a low-attaining student's

perception of themselves as a reader needs to increase in order for them to be intrinsically motivated and practise these skills. As peers provide context and a frame of reference from which these perceptions are based, attention must also be given to the social element of the adolescent's reading experiences.

According to the literature, peer tutoring seems a viable means to meet these needs. In addition to being a practical way to meet the individual learner's cognitive and instructional needs, cross-ability peer tutoring can increase self-perceptions as well as provide opportunity for positive social interactions between the tutor and tutee. As the literature suggests, these benefits can be even greater for those in the role of the cross-ability tutor, making peer tutoring an effective intervention for all of those involved.

2.10 Research Questions

In the quest for finding an approach to assist low-attaining secondary readers, my literature review highlights three aspects as being critical for their success. Cognitive processes are necessary for reading attainment as students must have the skills to read. At the same time, there are also emotional processes that are critical to their successful reading experience and these are shaped by social experiences and comparisons. Without the students perceiving that they have these skills, they are not fully engaged in the reading process. Likewise, negative self-perceptions prevent the students from practicing and solidifying their skills.

According to the literature, peer tutoring appears to provide a solution to addressing all three aspects- cognitive, emotional and social processes. In previous research, peer tutoring relationships with permanent role assignments have been classified as cross-age or cross-ability and have involved students who are at least two years apart, partly to decrease the likelihood of conflicts. Even though the literature does not seem to address cross-age or cross-ability tutees becoming tutors themselves after they have increased their levels of attainment and received reciprocal training, this seems like it would create substantial gains in fostering positive self-perceptions. Therefore, in this study, I re-imagine peer tutoring as an activity built between similar aged low-attaining students, each assuming a permanent role throughout their partnership, with a belief that their

similar goals and feelings of social belonging will counteract these tendencies towards conflict.

In order to determine the effects of the intervention, my research questions are as follows:

1. What is the impact of an individualised peer-tutoring intervention on secondary students' reading attainment?

2. How might this individualised peer-tutoring intervention alter the tutors and tutees' self-perceptions about reading?

Chapter 3- Methodology

3.0 Introduction

Due to the numerous students who are not reading to the standard attributed to their age, the aim of my study is to ascertain the elements that can prove effective in improving the reading skills and self-perceptions of low-attaining secondary school readers. In order to accomplish this target, I examined numerous studies about reading. In the previous chapter, the existing research of this complex area and the numerous perspectives held are considered and assisted in the development of a theory regarding the elements necessary for an intervention to be successful. This theory is presented in my diagram of the Intervention Needs of Low-attaining Secondary Readers (see Diagram 6).

In this chapter, I discuss the theoretical perspective that underpins my research and the methods that I utilised to ascertain the effectiveness of the intervention. The first part of this chapter presents the four elements proposed by Crotty (2006)- epistemology, theoretical perspective, methodology and methods. Holistically, these elements provide the framework for this study and determine the research design employed. This design is discussed in the chapter as well as any of its plausible shortcomings. Afterwards, I expound upon the steps that I have taken throughout the study to ensure validity and to consider any possible ethical issues.

3.1 Constructionist Epistemology and Research Paradigm

Reading is a phenomenon that can be difficult to define because it is the unspoken relationship that occurs between the text and the reader (Goodman, Watson, & Burke, 2005) as they transform words on a page to something meaningful. The epistemologies and ontologies perceive this relationship and reality in different ways. Prior to designing my research, I followed the advice of Biesta and Burbules (2003) and engaged in a "philosophical reflection" regarding knowledge, reality and human action and implications towards the relationship between the reader and text. The task that involves the first research question requires examining the effectiveness of a reading intervention.

This question assumes a reality where objects, such as a text and an intervention, have truth and merit independent of the reader (Pring, 2010). This notion is based on a realist ontology that promotes a positivist epistemology where scientific, quantitative research is capable of attaining legitimate and objective answers towards determining a programme's success (Cohen. et al., 2011). This positivist stance addresses the necessity of the existence of different elements in a text and programme material in order for it to be successful, coinciding with literature about the needs of low-attaining readers (Sanders, 2001; Hulme & Snowling, 2011). However, it does not recognise the role of the independent reader as having significance.

In contrast, the relativist ontology accredits reality to the subject's consciousness with "a focus on small-scale phenomena and a neglect of structural processes" (Kettley, 2010, p. 30). This notion leads to an anti-positivist epistemology that regards the reader's relationship with the text and world around them as paramount and solely created by their subjective and individual experience (Kettley, 2010). This validates the importance of the reader and their view of themselves in the process incorporated in learning to read. Even though this theory correlates with literature about the essential role that engagement (Combs, 2012) and feelings of self-efficacy (Lawrence, 2006) play in a student's reading success, it does not address the composition of texts or interventions as significant to the reader's success.

In order to analyse the success of the reading process, a constructionist epistemology was adopted. "According to constructionism, we do not create meaning. We construct meaning. We have something to work with" (Crotty, 2006, p. 43). This paradigm recognises the importance of both the text, or programme, and the reader and their needs in the reading phenomenon. "Because of the essential relationship that human experience bears to its object, no object can be adequately described in isolation from the conscious being experiencing it, nor can any experience be adequately described in isolation from its object" (Crotty, 2006, p. 45). In this relationship, both the object and subject are dependent upon each other.

As with their relationship with objects, the subject cannot be isolated from the society surrounding them and its influences. According to the social constructionist/ symbolic

interactionism philosophy. The manner in which the subject responds to objects is based upon definitions that they have learned from their society. The subject occupies two different spheres: "the 'natural' world wherein they are organisms of drives and instincts and where the external worlds exists independently of them, and the social world where the existence of symbols, like language, enables them to give meaning to objects" (Cohen, et al., 2011, p. 20). Thus, the subject and their relationship with the object cannot be separated from the society that has nurtured them. "We are born, each of us, into an already interpreted world and it is at once natural and social" (Crotty, 2006, p. 57). This interpretive stance has great significance to reading as the author's consciousness is rooted in the society in which they were nurtured and this has bearing upon the way that they choose to communicate and devise their text. Additionally, the reader utilises these learned social systems to perceive and create meaning from the text (Calfee & Sperling, 2010). When this process occurs in the social context of the classroom, the subject also defines themselves and their interactions with others based upon these constructs in combination with the action of reading. "Individuals align their actions to those of others. They do this by 'taking the role of the other,' by making indications to 'themselves' about others' likely responses" (Cohen, et al., 2011, p. 20). Thus, according to this theory, the subject and object cannot be defined separately, but neither can the society from which the subject belongs.

3.2 Theoretical Perspective- Pragmatism

When considering the complexity of the process of reading, a third choice that "embraces superordinate ideas gleaned through consideration of perspectives from both sides of the paradigms" (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 73) was necessitated for my research. Both the pragmatic and transformative-emancipatory perspectives are capable of providing a foundation for this type of research (Creswell, 2010). As both perspectives developed from the same schools of thought, their theories converge in many areas. Even though research focusing on the emancipation of marginalised or underrepresented groups is generally attributed to the transformative-emancipatory perspective, pragmatism also values the individual and seeks for social progress. In his comparison of the two

perspectives, Freda (2014) concludes, “They both assume that the task of social philosophy is to support processes of social transformation aimed at bettering the circumstances of social life, at reducing injustices and oppression” (p. 77). However, the theories on reaching this transformation differ. The transformative-emancipatory perspective seeks an independent standpoint from which to critique and reveal the methods utilised by society to oppress and marginalise. In contrast, pragmatism views this critique as an important means to recognise a problem but it is insufficient unless coupled with a workable solution.

As my study highlights the needs of low-attaining readers and aims to find an effective means to address these needs, I have adopted a pragmatic perspective. Pragmatism “is a pluralist approach to research, drawing on positivism and interpretive epistemologies based on the criteria of fitness for purpose and applicability, and regarding ‘reality’ as both objective and socially constructed” (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 18).

Pragmatism permitted the different aspects of the complex reading phenomenon and the questions to be recognised and analysed completely instead of ignoring different viewpoints that are of great significance to the reading phenomenon because they did not fit a preferred theory. By “debunk[ing] concepts such as ‘truth’ and ‘reality’ and focus[ing] instead on ‘what works’ as the truth regarding the research questions under investigation,” the pragmatic perspective permitted me to answer the research questions (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003, p. 713) and to determine the necessity of cognitive and emotional elements that are necessary for a reader’s success. As these research questions necessitated the use of both quantitative and qualitative data, pragmatism condoned the utilisation of both methods. Gray (2014) explains, “Pragmatism views the mixing of quantitative and qualitative data in a single study not only as legitimate, but in some cases necessary” (p. 29). Along with envisioning the quantitative and qualitative approaches as compatible, Morgan (2007) states that the advantages and disadvantages of each approach are able to complement each other in the pragmatist paradigm.

3.3 Mixed Methods

The first research question— the *what,* demanded the use of quantitative methods in the examination of the object, or reading intervention, and to measure the reading intervention's success in teaching specific text and students. The second question – the *how*, required qualitative methods of interview and observation as it attempted to understand the student's view of themselves as a reader and their relationship with a peer tutor. The pragmatic perspective permitted the utilisation of any method required in order to answer the questions being examined, "instead of a focus on methods, the important aspect of research is the problem being studied and the questions asked about the problem" (Creswell, 2013).

The mixed methods approach debates the polarisation of the quantitative and qualitative methodologies and the 'paradigm wars' (Gage, 1989) by creating a middle ground where both methods complement each other. This middle ground permitted both research questions to be answered more completely than if only one of the methods was utilised. Smith (2006) argues that the complexity of education makes it impossible to "satisfactorily" ask or answer many questions in this field with "single research approaches" (p. 458). "Mixed methods allow researchers to explore a problem or issue by 'walking around it,' viewing it from different methodological perspectives …, thereby opening up a particular kind of complexity" (Calfee & Sperling, 2010, p. 9). This walk-around approach was necessitated by the complexity of the reading phenomenon and the research questions.

Similarly, the employment of multiple and mixed methods to observe a single subject's experience of reading increased my confidence that these were accurate representations of their relationship with text (Denscombe, 2014). As all methods have their deficiencies, Creswell (2013) states that the mixing of methods enables a neutralisation of these weaknesses, thus increasing their accuracy. At the same time, "The strength of this design is that it combines the advantages of each form of data; that is, quantitative data provide for generalizability, whereas qualitative data offer information about the context of the setting" (Creswell, 2013, p. 572). While this mixed approach provides more accurate and alternative perspectives of the individual's reading experiences, both

methods "retain their distinctive roles" (Howe, 2012, p. 89). This distinction is observed in my separate research questions.

3.3.1 Research Design

In order to gain the greatest advantage from utilising both qualitative and quantitative methods, their organisation became significant (Denscombe, 2014). In determining the type of design to employ, three issues need to be considered: priority, implementation and integration (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2008). Design differences emerge from the priority that is given to either the quantitative or qualitative method; the corresponding time when each is implemented in conjunction with the other method and the stages that the methods are integrated into the process (Denscombe, 2014).

As my research validated each method as necessary and of equal importance, a parallel mixed design was demanded (Creswell, 2012). This design employed both methods concurrently throughout the research process— the conceptualization, experimentation and inferential phases of the project. In this design, as seen in the visual representation in Appendix A, there were two parallel strands that were somewhat independent of each other yet answered the overarching research questions. In order to visualise how this role altered between being a tutor and tutee, this design was replicated in a subsequent phase in the following term. While the designs of both strands were similar, the participants were not. The first stage involved a group called the tutors, who had previously received similar decoding and comprehension instruction, and they were partnered with a tutee from the core group members. After their role as tutee in the first stage, this core group assumed the role of tutors in the second stage. In this second stage, they were paired with a student from another group called the tutees.

In Strand One of the first phase, I employed formal standardised pre and post-tests to evaluate reading attainment levels before and after the implementation of the intervention for the four participants and four core group members. Over the next twelve weeks, the use of running records and miscue analysis determined the tutees' individual needs and were given every three weeks to assess their attainment of these skills and their reading level. In Strand Two, the tutors and core group members were interviewed and observed

to determine their reading attainment levels and their self-perceptions. These interviews were given during conceptualization and in conjunction with the assessments. Afterwards, the same process was replicated in Stage 2 with the core group members' assuming the tutor role with four new participants acting as tutees. By conducting both methods throughout the research process, both questions were answered surely while providing a means to correlate the data with each other, revealing the independence and interdependence of the object and subject upon one another.

3.4 Case Study

Although there are many different methods that can be utilised in mixed methods research, a case study was chosen for many reasons. According to Yin (2011), "the first and most important condition for differentiating among the various research methods is to classify the type of research question being asked" (p. 11). As the research questions are concrete ideas and abstract principles, such as self-perception, a case study enabled both questions the ability to evolve (Yin, 2014).

Additionally, the reading phenomenon demanded a study that could expose its complexity. Yin (2014) further defines case study as "a study that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and in its real-world context" (p. 237). The study's aspiration to examine the participant's feelings of efficacy and the peer tutoring relationships could also be realised by a case study, which is able to "recognise the complexity and 'embeddedness' of social truths" (Bassey, 1999, p. 23). A case study facilitated an examination of the various aspects involved in the phenomenon of a student learning to read through various philosophical stances.

In my study, I wanted to observe students with complicated reading needs and to explore their reactions to a reading intervention. "Human behaviour is complex and cannot be meaningfully understood by simple, rule-governed acts found at the lowest levels of the learning process, and in much theory" (Flyvbjerg, 2006, p. 6). Therefore, I needed to analyse whether the theory that an intervention based on the aspects highlighted by the literature review, and synthesised in Diagram 6, was accurate through assessments and quantitative methods. Additionally, I needed to observe the participants' reactions to the

intervention through the qualitative methods of observation and interview. Case study "can penetrate situations in ways that are not always susceptible to numerical analysis" (Cohen, et. al., 2011). The qualitative part of my research question permitted the subtleties of human behaviour to be explored in their complexity. This is especially significant to this study as I wanted to explore the relationships that were created between the tutor and tutee and the students' perceptions of themselves as readers; both were situations that I, as the researcher, had little control over and lent themselves to this method. As this study was defined more by the participants than the line of enquiry (Cohen et. al., 2011; Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995), the method needed to provide the freedom for their responses to evolve without restrictions.

According to Hamilton and Corbett-Whittier (2012), the key to a case study is having a clear purpose. Yin (2014) delineates the motive for case studies as being a means for: exploration (collecting data to determine the need for further research), description (presenting a unique case) and explanation (explaining the evolution of a situation) and evaluation. Bartlett and Vavrus (2016) argue that these motives, especially those involving description and explanation, undervalue the design's significance in the social sciences. Bassey (1999) also envisions case study's value as the "prime strategy" to seek and test theory in educational research (p. 4). As the aim of my research was to assess my theory and the effectiveness of the intervention in assisting low-attaining readers, case study meets this purpose.

In a case study, the first objective "is to understand the case" (Stake, 2005, p. 2). The case is "an integrated system. The parts do not have to be working well, the purposes may be irrational, but it is a system. Thus, people and programmes clearly are prospective cases" (Stake, 1995, p. 2) making case studies popular in the fields of education and the social sciences. One reason for this is that case studies permit the examination of subjective, real-life experiences through the collection of in-depth data that exposes the complexity of the case. "Case study is the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances" (Stake, 1995, xi). Thomas (2011) states that "the case study is not a method in itself. Rather, it is a focus and the focus is on one thing, looked at in depth and from many angles" (p. 9). Yin (2014) proposes that defining the case is assisted by the

research questions. As both research questions required exploring the effects of the intervention, the individual experiencing the intervention was the case. Additionally, the individual needed to be a secondary student and a low-attaining reader, which also made them a 'key case' (Thomas, 2011). As these students were also from a local school where I have taught both regular literacy and intervention sessions for numerous years, they were also local knowledge cases (Thomas, 2011). However, the number of individuals, and therefore the case study design, also needed to be determined.

Thomas (2011) and Yin (2014) agree upon four main case study designs. The four are distinguished between single and multiple-case designs depending on the number of case studies that are analysed within the design. Although the research could fall into either type depending on whether one considered the intervention or the student to be the subject of the case study, this research was structured around the multiple-case design where the students were the subjects of independent cases. This added a degree of complexity, as according to the objective of the case study method, each student's response was considered in its entirety.

Furthermore, each design was further distinguished by whether sub-units were 'embedded' (Yin, 2011) or 'nested' (Thomas, 2011) within them. "A nested study is distinct from a multiple study in that it gains its integrity, its wholes from the wider case" (Thomas, 2011, p. 153). Since there was more than one case and theory involved in the intervention, this was an embedded multiple-case design. These multiple cases ran concurrently and parallel with one another, making this a concurrent or convergent parallel mixed method design. This concurrent design permitted analysis and comparisons to be made, although it did not enable replication within the design.

3.4.1 Participants

The 'cases' were twelve students in Years 7, 8, 9 and 10 who were enrolled in a large comprehensive school in the south east of the UK. The school is located in a local authority which conducts a system of selection where the third highest performing students are enrolled in grammar schools. The proportion of students assessed to have learning difficulties was similar to the UK's national average.

According to the school's literacy policy, the responsibility for the teaching of reading skills is delineated to the English faculty but teachers across the curriculum are expected to give students the opportunity to read and understand high-quality texts pertaining to their subject area. The policy does not further specify what these reading opportunities should include or whether they should be given individually or collectively and it does not mention strategies that should be implemented to accommodate student's individual needs. While parents are given the responsibility to provide their children with dictionaries and to encourage the use of any strategies learnt at school, students are expected to take increasing responsibility for recognising their own literacy needs and in making improvements. Even though it is not referred to in this policy, school materials such as the student planners and homework policies post suggestions for the students to read fifteen minutes at home but this is not reinforced by the school.

In the beginning of each school year, every student in Years 7 and 8 took the Suffolk Reading Scale 2 test (Hagley, 2001) to determine their reading abilities and whether or not these skills were on their school year level. Those who performed below grade level on the exam were deemed as "low-attaining readers" and began intervention strategies that graduated in intensity according to their response. The eight tutees in the case studies were selected from the students who had not improved their reading abilities after their involvement with these different reading interventions. Afterwards, these low-attaining readers were interviewed using open-ended questions that determined their willingness to participate. The four tutors were selected from previously low-attaining readers that had participated in a similar programme of intervention with parents and older siblings acting as tutors. All twelve students, both tutee and tutor candidates, were asked if they wished to be involved with the study. All of the participants and their parents consented to participating in the study (see Appendix B).

3.4.2 Tutoring Sessions

The timing of the sessions was key. As Byers (2012) reports, "The ways in which schooling for pupils with SEN and/ or disabilities operates can exacerbate [the] problems" and include the employment of teaching assistants or isolating them from their

peer group. These intervention methods could hinder friendships (Byers, 2012) or remove them from lessons that could have a detrimental effect on their progress (O'Meara, 2011). In order to combat these issues, the students were taught during non-instructional form time when they generally attended assemblies. This might have encumbered friendships that would have been forged during these times but ultimately it provided time directed more on peers and building stronger relationships with students from similar backgrounds. These form times were before or after lunch for thirty minutes four times a week. Each stage spanned over a twelve-week term with a week break in the middle and end for school holidays.

These tutoring sessions were organised around teaching the participants strategies to enable the decoding and comprehension of reading materials. In the beginning of each session, the tutor conducted a short decoding lesson. These lessons involved the use of two types of worksheets that concentrated on phonemes that the miscue analysis indicated were problematic (Appendices M, N, O and P). These worksheets focussed at the level of onset and rime, as well as grapheme and phoneme. On the initial day of working with a problematic phoneme, the first type of worksheet was utilised, which focussed on teaching the strategy of onset and rime analogy formation through the use of clue words (Goswami, 1999), a more analytic approach. On subsequent days, the second type of worksheet offered opportunities to decode words at the smaller phoneme level, a synthetic phonics approach (see Appendix D). The second worksheet also utilised the participant's decoding knowledge at both a rime and phoneme level to recode words containing the problematic phoneme. Afterwards, the pattern was repeated and the first type of worksheet was utilised to introduce the next phoneme (see Appendix Q).

As the participants had already been involved with numerous intervention methods and many of these likely included synthetic phonics, its use in this intervention could be seen as a weakness as it would inevitably lead to the same results. However as found in Chapter 2, low-attaining readers require individualised instruction to fill their gaps in decoding knowledge (Sanders, 2001), and this decoding instruction needs to be explicit and systematic to be effective (NRP, 2000; Pressley & Allington, 2014). Therefore, the participants were provided systematic and explicit decoding instruction based on three different approaches and at both onset-rime and grapheme-phoneme levels. By vocally

employing these strategies to decode and recode words, the tutors were able to monitor their tutee's attainment of these skills. In addition, I assessed their employment of these skills every three weeks during their running records to ensure that they were being attained and the participants were progressing.

In the second part of each tutoring session, the pairs selected literature to read. These could be books, magazines, newspapers or internet articles from home, the school library or the classroom. In the classroom, I adhered to the studies on student textual preferences (Hall & Coles, 1999; Cavazos-Kottke, 2006) by providing short articles from *First News*; an assortment of car, sports and fashion magazines and popular novels, such as *The Maze Runner* (Dashner) and the *Divergent* (Roth) trilogies. I also offered to make other materials available upon request, leading to the inclusion of books from Jacqueline Wilson and the *Diary of a Wimpy Kid* (Kinney) series later in the sessions (see Appendix R). As they read, their tutor employed reciprocal teaching methods previously used when they were the tutee, which often lead to discussions about the literature. These methods taught comprehension skills—summarising, questioning, clarifying and predicting (Harrison, 2004).

3.4.3 Training Sessions

In order to ensure that the tutors knew how to perform their role in these sessions, the techniques were reviewed in four thirty-minute sessions in the week prior to the tutoring sessions. These tutor training sessions were similar to the tutoring sessions; they were held at the same time, for the same duration and following the same format (see Appendix E). As there were two different types of decoding lessons (see Appendix D), alternating sessions reviewed the delivery of each worksheet and lesson type. Then, the tutors were observed tutoring each other to ensure understanding. Afterwards, each session focussed on one of the four reciprocal training strategies-- summarising, questioning, clarifying and making predictions (Palincsar & Brown, 1988). Following the reciprocal training instructions of Palincsar and Brown's, these strategies were introduced and modelled by vocalising the thought processes that occur during reading. As a group, further questions pertaining to the strategy were formulated and the students

assumed a more active role as they took turns reading and vocalising their thought processes. At the end of each session, the students performed this role in pairs. I listened to ensure accuracy, providing corrections when necessary.

Even though the social benefits of having students as tutors are vast as discussed in Chapter 2 (Miller, et. al., 2010; Topping, et. al., 2011), they could also be seen as a weakness without a system for quality assurance. In order to ensure that a level of quality was met in the tutor's delivery of the material, the material was systematically introduced, monitored and evaluated. First, I ensured that the training that the tutors received was consistent and well understood by using the same training materials. As the tutors had been in the tutee position over twelve weeks prior to these training sessions and had slowly assumed a more active role during this scaffolding process, they were knowledgeable of the material and its delivery. They were also monitored using these skills at the end of the training sessions to ensure that they fully understood how to assume the role of tutor. During all of the tutoring sessions, I monitored the quality of the tutor's delivery of the materials by being present in the classroom. In order to explicitly observe each partnership's training sessions, each partnership was assigned a specific day each week when they were recorded. When I transcribed and analysed each of these recordings, I had the opportunity to check for quality and offer extra support if any concerns arose regarding the quality of a tutor's delivery. In addition, the success of these sessions was determined by the employment of four data collection methods.

3.5 Data Collection

Although case studies are most commonly used in qualitative studies, they are able to produce both objective and subjective data. "Case studies can blend numerical and qualitative data; and they are a prototypical instance of mixed method research" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 289). This diversity is due to a case study relying more upon the 'case,' the object or subject that is being observed, than the methodology (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). As the study attempted to portray the reality of the singular subject or object, I avoided controlling and interpreting the situation and permitted the case to expose its

holistic nature. "Case studies recognise and accept that there are many variables operating in a single case, and, hence, to catch the implications of these variables usually requires more than one tool for data collection (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 289). This recognition enabled my involvement and use of the tools required to expose the entirety of the case, as well as providing freedom if alterations were necessitated during the research.

3.5.1 Standardised Assessment

In order to answer the first question: '*what* is the impact of the implementation of an individualised programme of intervention on the reading abilities of secondary low-attaining readers' I collected quantitative data. Tests are a useful way to provide numeric data "designed to assess knowledge, intelligence, or ability" (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 345). Reliability and validity are crucial to the trustworthiness of the data. Validity evaluates the tool's ability to measure the matter of interest (Elliott, 2005) while reliability indicates the consistency of this measurement (O'Dwyer & Bernauer, 2013). For a test to claim validity, Cohen et. al. (2011) state that it must test what it proposes to test and demonstrate its validity in areas, such as its content (adequate coverage of the behaviour); its construct (extent of this measurement) and its ability to accurately predict final scores. However, Borsboom, Mellenbergh and van Heerden argue that validity needs to be "simple, clear and workable" (2004, p. 1061). Standardised tests undertake numerous trials to prove their validity and reliability. Upon constructing exams, testing and retesting are necessary to ensure that participants find them clear and straightforward. Each topic that I examined needed to offer an adequate amount of examples that were appropriate to demonstrate the student's proficiency.

In order to locate key cases, a standardised test enabled the assessment of each student in the year groups and identified students who had not performed as well as their peers during the first phase. Additionally, the application of this assessment across the whole year group provided an external measure from which to triangulate the data with the other methods. The employment of a standardised test was the best means at determining this as it is objective and has "been piloted and refined" as well as being "standardised across a named population" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 479) which assisted in determining the actual

recognised reading level as well as providing reliability. The same test was utilised as a final assessment to collect numerical and objective data indicating the impact of the intervention on the student's reading level.

I utilised the Suffolk Reading Scale 2 paper Forms 3A and 3B which were first published in 1987 (Hagley) but the newest edition was utilised for this study (Hagley, 2001). It is a standardised, criterion-referenced test enabling students who are not performing as well as their peers to be identified. The same test was utilised as a final assessment to collect numerical and objective data indicating the impact of the intervention on the student's reading level. The standardised test is comprised of 86 multiple-choice questions utilising the cloze method where a word has been omitted from a sentence with five potential words given for completion. Cloze measurements of reading comprehension in a paper-based format provide an easy and reliable means to assess whole year groups. There are three levels of the test that are designed for different age groups. As it is aimed towards students in Years 7 to 9, I used Level 3. Two different versions were produced on this level, which I employed for my pre and post-tests. The students received ten minutes to acquaint themselves with the format and to complete a couple of sample test questions before conducting the thirty-minute timed assessment. The test scores provided data regarding their reading attainment level and their score across the standardised population.

In order to obtain reliability and validity evidence for the SRS2 (Hagley, 2001), 38,625 students were involved with the psychological assessment. By comparing the teachers' estimates of their students' reading abilities with the SRS2 outcomes, a high correlation of 0.85 was found. During the study, internal consistency was determined between the two different test versions with a high internal consistency estimate of 0.88 (Oakhill, 1997). Even though the use of this assessment provided data from the whole year group, its results have limitations. As the SRS2 utilises sentences rather than larger pieces of a text, its results are limited to indications of sentence-level comprehension.

3.5.2 Informal Assessment

In order to ensure the validity of the standardised assessment, the students who were identified as low-attaining initially were given a running record or curriculum-based

measure. I conducted these assessments in an informal classroom setting (Afflerbach, 2005; Schumm & Arguelles, 2006b) and miscue analysis was also collected to define gaps in their knowledge. If these assessments were consistent with the standardised scores, the students were asked to participate. Afterwards, every three weeks, a running record and miscue analysis was implemented on passages a level below, on and above their current level until they fell below 95% accuracy (Clay, 1993). Passages were only employed once. Unlike other forms of assessment, running records and miscue analysis are "both qualitative (describing what the reader is doing- the quality of the reading) as well as quantitative (providing statistical information- the quantity or frequency of miscues)" (Goodman et al., 2005, p. 4).

The text's level, or the estimated school year that a student would be to read and understand the text, were ascertained through subjective and objective means. Informal assessments were given by two different means. The first method incorporated the use of the Simplified Measure of Gobbledygook Readability Formula (McLaughlin, 1969) that was constructed for use with older students. Of the current formulas frequently utilised to determine readability, SMOG is the most recently constructed. This formula calculates the readability of a text by examining ten sentences at the beginning, middle and end and counting the number of three-syllable words appear. Then the square root of the sum is rounded to the nearest tenth and three is added to this figure. The number that is reached is considered the reading grade that an individual must have reached to be able to read and understand the passage. In order to enhance the subjective element of the text's context, they followed the advice of Goodman et. al. (2005) that a text for upper primary and secondary students should be a minimum of 500 words with fictional texts having a recognisable storyline, plot and theme and non-fictional passages thoroughly describing at least one concept or event. As discussed in Chapter 2, a formula's ability to determine the readability of a passage has its limitations (Janan & Wray, 2013; Pitcher & Fang, 2007). However, validity is increased by maintaining an environment as similar to their everyday classroom as possible (Coles, 2006).

3.5.3 Interviews

While responding to the second question: '*how* will it alter their perceptions of themselves as readers,' my inquiry provided an examination of the subject's experience. As one of the objectives of the study was to provide a holistic picture of the complexity of their experience, an interview provided a means of accomplishing this. According to Yin (2014):

> One of the most important sources of case study evidence is the interview…. They will resemble guided conversations rather than structured queries. Although you will be pursuing a consistent line of inquiry, your actual stream of questions in a case study interview is likely to be fluid rather than rigid. (p. 110).

This type of interview is referred to as the unstructured interview and it is the preferred method in case studies, because it calls for as little involvement as possible from the interviewer, one of the goals of this case study.

As I was attempting to offer low-attaining readers a 'voice', interviews offered an audible manner for them to express their perspective without limiting them with devices that they have difficulty. In the conceptualization phase, each student was asked a question regarding their desire of being involved in the case, providing for student voice. Afterwards, the students were interviewed with the use of open-ended questions to expose their perceptions of their capabilities. This question needed to correspond directly with the task in order for these measurements of self-efficacy to relate to their academic outcomes, according to Bandura (1997) and Pajares (1996). They also needed to be in the format of open-ended questions rather than questionnaires; as Bong (2006) states that questions about an individual's ability to perform a specific task permit an adolescent to reveal their whole and complex perspective.

Thus, the question was directed towards the participant's ability to read material that was listed in their English class's curriculum for the following term. The English class readers for the different terms were *Lord of the Flies* (Golding, 1954), *Of Mice and Men* (Steinbeck, 1937), Shakespeare's *MacBeth* and *Romeo and Juliet.* The students were asked, "How well can you read this?" as I pointed to this material. The word "can" was

necessary to determine self-efficacy. The phrasing of this question left it open-ended and permitted a levelling of self-efficacy skills while promoting a discussion of what was meant to perform the skill "well." Throughout the second experimentation phase, the timing of these interviews correlated with the tests so that possible relationships between the data could be explored in the third inferential phase.

In qualitative research, Creswell (2009) concludes that the quantitative concepts of validity and reliability are not applicable and even misleading, rather results need to be consistent and dependable. Thus, the inquiry needed to consistently provide the subject's response to the phenomenon. Rather controlling the situation and either consciously or subconsciously injecting my own perspective, I needed to permit the participants to speak for themselves. Self-concept is how the participants envisioned themselves; self-report is what they were willing the reveal about themselves to others. In order to provide a comfortable and safe environment to increase this willingness, it was important to offer a friendly and non-judgemental demeanour to facilitate this kind of environment. Unfortunately, this demeanour could have increased the participant's desire to report what they thought that I wanted to hear and must be acknowledged (Harrison, Bailey, & Foster, 1998). Following Brenner's (2006) advice, I tried to assure them that their individual thoughts were my sole interest by stating this prior to the interview and utilising open-ended questions centred on these perspectives. Their interview responses were also counterbalanced with the data collected in observations. Despite its faults, unstructured interviews are a means to limit the researcher's role and reveal the student's perceptions of themselves.

3.5.4 Observation

Even though self-report provides a means to understand an individual's self-perceptions, Hafen and his colleagues (2012) indicate that the self-report is open to bias and observation is a means to validate this information, especially with regards to student engagement. Similar to the interviews, my goal was to explore human behaviour in a natural setting, so my observations were qualitative and unstructured and coincided with Creswell's (2013) proposition that observations be made of behaviours occurring in the

natural setting. These unstructured observations began broadly with descriptive observations then gradually focussed in on the points relevant to the research questions. Weekly, each partnership was observed through audio recordings. Observations were also made daily by jotting notes *in situ,* which were expanded into lengthier annotations, and in most cases, these annotations were made directly after the sessions to help eliminate selective memory issues.

During observations, the role of the researcher lies at some point on the participant-observer continuum (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). In this setting, I was a teacher, which automatically placed me in a position of a participant-as-observer (Taber, 2013). This was ideal for this study because I was "a 'natural' part of the of the classroom situation" and did not distort the context (Taber, 2013, p. 271) as I could witness the students' behaviours directly while maintaining detachment. Nevertheless, the teacher role also placed me into a position of authority that could have resulted in the participants altering their behaviour to appease me or avoid punishment. Another limitation of these observations is the inclusion of the recording device. Even though students were aware that they are being observed, especially when being recorded, the reactivity effects were reduced by the length of the study. "By staying in a situation over a long period, the research is also able to see how events evolve over time, catching the dynamics of the situation, the people, personalities, contexts, resources, roles, etc." (Cohen, et. al., 2011). Thus, the genuine relationships between tutor and tutee, as well as their authentic reactions and behaviours in the classroom, were more likely to be seen. The utilisation of two different types of observation over a length of time as well as multiple open-ended interviews offset each other by providing a breadth of data from which to fill in cracks caused by any of the measurements' vulnerabilities (Gaete, Gomez & Benavides, 2018). Therefore, the employment of both types of data collection helped to ensure that these were accurate depictions of the participants' self-perceptions.

3.6 Triangulation

In addition to exposing the complexity of the case, these different tools also offered a means of increasing validation through triangulation. As Yin (2011) defines,

triangulation is “an analytic technique, used during fieldwork as well as later during formal analysis, to corroborate a finding with evidence from two or more different sources” (p. 313). Even though both the quantitative and qualitative data were focussed on answering different questions, triangulation was utilised in numerous ways in this study because they both concentrated on the participants and their responses to the peer-tutoring intervention.

First, the mixed methods design provided this triangulation through the use of quantitative and qualitative methods. The data served as a means of triangulation where the separate methods acted “as a means to offset the weaknesses inherent within one method with the strengths of the other method” (Creswell et al., 2008, p. 183). The concurrent parallel mixed design provided a dataset that could corroborate findings about the intervention’s impact on both the participant’s emotional and cognitive states and envision where there were possible correlations.

Second, the employment of multiple-case design was another example of triangulation. While case study enables the whole picture by utilising different methods, it only presents information regarding one participant’s experience. The main benefit of a multiple case over a single case study is the ability to triangulate data. “Single-case designs are vulnerable if only because you will have put ‘all of your eggs in one basket.’ More important, the analytic benefits from having two (or more) cases may be substantial” (Yin, 2014, p. 64) as they provide more information to cross-reference interpretations of the data. Thus, the participants’ reactions could be compared to reveal trends, while increasing the external validity and the generalizability beyond the study. As the design was replicated in the second stage and as the core group members became tutors, this offered another means to validate and check for reliability. With the tutoring role as the variable, it also presented information about how a change in role affected their reading experience.

In addition, the employment of data from different means of collection provided triangulation. As empirical data was collected through tests and interpretative data was gathered in interviews, two different datasets were provided. Evidence acts as “the emergence of data triangulation techniques highlighted practicality and power of

combining multiple data sources, which blur the boundaries between traditional qualitative and quantitative data collection strategies" (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 205). In this study, precautions were made to increase the validity and reliability that this case study method could offer but part of the evidence was interpretative. Interpretive data is based on understanding the individual and quantitative research is centred on numeric evidence, validity with its focus on statistics has generally focussed upon this type of data. When converging interpretation and validity, "Validity is thus wrenched out of its home in normative research …bent and twisted … the result is that we end up bashing our square peg, validity, into the round hole of case study research" (Thomas, 2011, p. 63). Although the study provided multiple procedures to increase internal and external validity, the qualitative, interpretative data collection could never lend itself entirely into these measures. Regardless, Howe (2012) argues that there are no obstructions to a triangulation of these two data collection methods. However, these two types of data offered a means for the participant's complex relationship with reading to be revealed, providing a more holistic view to be exposed.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues were considered throughout each stage and phase of the research. Prior to my research, I discussed my plans with the school to obtain their consent. As this study was in part researching self-efficacy, steps had to be taken to ensure that the research did not decrease the participant's confidence. One method of ensuring this was by showing them respect and getting their permission to be involved with the intervention strategy. Then, parents were contacted for permission due to the ages of the students. This consent form is recorded in Appendix B. Previous to the study, I discussed the intervention with both the participants and their parents, in addition to individual form tutors, to ensure that everyone was comfortable with the process. Throughout the study, the students had the option to withdraw by contacting their form tutors in case they were worried to upset me, as their teacher.

As the literature review indicated the possibility of hostility in cross-age peer tutoring when students were less than two years apart, I was cautious in pairing students and

asked for their input on these decisions. As the tutor position could have promoted feelings of disproportionate power, I met with the tutors to discuss appropriate behaviour. I regularly interviewed each participant in private to ensure that they were comfortable in their partnerships. I was also observant of any negative peer dynamics to avert any issues if they arose.

Throughout the process, I took several measures to protect the school and the participant's privacy. I only utilised and stored information on my personal computer, which has numerous security features and has been in my sole possession throughout the process. The participants remained anonymous when data was analysed and stored. However, the participants were not notified how this data was being stored because this has only recently been included into the British Educational Research Association's guidelines (BERA, 2018).

Since collecting data for this study, the EU has also adopted new regulation, the EU General Data Protection Regulation (2018). Even though these guidelines were not in place at the time that the data was collected and processed, data has been given appropriate security and handled in a "fair" and "transparent" way, according to the participants' expectations (GDPR, 2018).

3.8 Role of the Researcher

In the study, my role was different in each strand. In the first quantitative strand, I was a test administrator. In constructing the skills test, validity and reliability checks were completed previous to the study. The data analysis followed the standardised tests statistically rigorous methods. In the second qualitative strand, I held numerous roles. As an interviewer, I attempted to listen to the individual and interpret the meanings that they held for the world around them (Creswell, 2013) through the use of open-ended questions and unstructured observations rather than attempting to be the driving force eliciting desired responses. At the same time, I understood that, like the participants, I gained meaning from society that formulated my interpretations of the subject, their words and actions. My participants' actions may have altered in their reaction to being

studied and wanting to please me, a phenomenon defined as the Hawthorne effect (Cohen, et. al., 2011; Zimbardo, 2007).

As I constructed the programme of intervention and skills tests and teach at the school, my role was also one of a teacher, making me a practitioner-researcher (Taber, 2013). Although the field of educational research has debated over educational research and practice and whether they can coincide (Lagemann, 2002), pragmatism "conceives of theory as a function of action" (Biesta & Burbules, 2003, p. 87). Therefore, they argue that a researcher must become a practitioner. As I constructed the worksheets and skills test and teach at the school, my role as a teacher, undoubtedly had some effect despite my best and numerous efforts to stay impartial. As designing curriculum and researching educational practice are integral to the teaching profession (Taber, 2013), researcher bias was possible and had to be minimised. I employed multiple methods to illicit responses, such as open-ended interviews, recorded observations, standardised tests and running records.

Regardless, researchers must "not assume they can be totally objective, but make their assumptions and expectations explicit, so the reader is aware of the direction that any bias would shift findings" (Taber, 2013, p. 173). As I analysed the data collected, I was also aware that my role as a researcher and a teacher provides context and influences how I interpret life around me, necessitating my conscious efforts to look at alternative interpretations of the data.

3.9 Analysis

In the parallel mixed methods design as visually represented in Appendix A, there are different ways to analyse the information. Yin (2014) identifies multiple strategies in analysing case study, such as following the theoretical propositions. In the quantitative first strand, "a hypothesis might be generated predicting specific results, data are gathered, and then the hypothesis is tested" (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 252). A theory had been generated by the literature that I reviewed. During the sampling phase, standardised and informal assessments were given and their results were compared to determine key cases. Throughout the implementation and progression phases, a balanced

approach to teach phonics and the explicit instruction of comprehension strategies were utilised according to the miscue analysis from the initial informal assessment.

The first research question needed to evaluate *what* the impact of this intervention was on the participant's reading abilities. A standardised test offered numeric data from both the sampling and concluding phases of the design that determined impact and tested this hypothesis. Even though each exam assessed two different elements of reading, Stahl and Hiebert (2005) found that the scores from the running records and comprehension assessments, especially those utilising cloze measurements such as the SRS2, have high concurrent validity. As only two datasets were produced, only progress and trends could be established.

Every three weeks, the running records produced reading age scores that were interval level data as there are equal intervals between the data, higher numbers indicating superiority and no absolute zero (Cohen et al., 2011). These data acted as the dependent variable and the number of weeks participating in the intervention was the independent variable. The relationship between the two variables in individual cases as well as the multiple cases was determined. The datasets from the two assessment methods were not comparable. The standardised assessment calculated a reading age equivalent and the running record determined a student's school level according to the readability of a passage that they could read accurately. These measurements of actual age and school year were different, making them incompatible. Even though these two sets of data were not compatible, trends in these datasets could be compared.

During the second strand, "the inductive qualitative process, on the other hand, the data [was] used to build the theory, the themes, or conclusions" (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 252). The data analysis determined if and *how* the tutoring intervention had altered self-perceptions, based on the literature's proposition that low-attaining students suffer from reading self-efficacy issues that can be modified through a peer tutoring relationship. These self-reports were taken at the beginning, after six weeks and at the conclusion of each stage; they were analysed for themes, which were then compared to the other participants' responses and counterbalanced through observations. As qualitative analysis is an iterative process (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009), I commenced

analysis during data collection, enabling the reconsideration and refinement of my data collection methods throughout the process. The steps in this analysis process included: 1) initial examination of the data as I transcribed recordings and notes into transcriptions, 2) coding the data, 3) utilising these codes to develop themes, 4) making connections with the themes, and 5) constructing a narrative from the data (Creswell, 2013). Particular attention was given to themes that established the perceptions of the student regarding themselves as readers. These themes were established from the coded data.

In a case study, the cases are units of analysis (Yin, 2014). Initially, I followed the steps above for each individual case. Afterwards, I looked for connections and differences between the themes that evolved in the multiple cases. By comparing the participants' responses, these themes built a theory towards the tutoring intervention's effects on altering the student's feelings of self-efficacy and how these developed in both tutor and tutee and the relationships that developed between the tutor and tutee. By conducting these data collection processes concurrently, these two datasets could be compared and contrasted to triangulate methods. Hypothesis were developed and alternatives were sought when interpreting these sets of data and their relationship with the research questions. The employment of both quantitative and qualitative methods enabled me "to take the analysis further" (Denscombe, 2014, p. 178) and to find alternative ways to interpret the different sets of data and the ways that they correlated with one another.

3.10 Methodology Summary

To achieve my study's aim, I needed to determine the effects of an intervention on low-attaining secondary school readers. This entailed testing as the causality of implementing a theory that evolved from the literature examined in Chapter 2 on a low-attaining reader's levels of attainment and their perceptions of themselves as readers. As previous literature had mainly focussed on the needs of students in primary school, these generally have not encompassed all aspects, especially those involving the emotional and social aspects, which are especially critical to a secondary reader's success and traditional methodologies as insufficient. Instead, the research questions became paramount in making decisions with regards to design.

As the research questions required the advantages of both sides of the polar sides of the methods' continuum, a mixed methods approach was necessitated. Numerical evidence indicating its impact on reading attainment required quantitative methods, such as formal standardised tests offset with the more informal running records. In contrast, the second research question required a means of exposing the complexity of the participants' perceptions of themselves as readers through open-ended interviews and observations. The distinct nature of the methods was maintained through two separate research questions, whereas their equal importance to the study stipulated their concurrent positioning in the design. Likewise, the triangulation of these methods offered a means to compare results and to develop thorough and alternative perspectives.

In order to reveal complexity of the phenomenon, a case study provided a holistic picture of an individual's relationship with text. By finding low-attaining readers through the use of a standardised assessment, key cases were established and involving multiple cases assisted in providing a means for generalisation of a low-attaining reader's response to the theory and in answering the research questions. In the second stage, these propositions were evaluated as the participants assumed other roles in four other cases. Although this study is small, it assesses a theory over multiple cases and provides "a proposition— which shows how the discovery may apply more widely" (Bassey, 1999, p. 55) to assist secondary students to attain reading skills and positive perceptions of themselves as readers.

Part II- The Findings

While reviewing literature regarding reading, I formulated a hypothesis about both cognitive and emotional processes being necessary for reading attainment. The study's research questions are:

1. What is the impact of an individualised peer-tutoring intervention on the students' reading attainment?
2. How might this individualised peer-tutoring intervention alter the tutors and tutees' self-perceptions about reading?

In order to answer both questions, a mixed method research design was utilised with a strand designed to examine each research question.

In Chapter 4, the findings from the first strand and the information that it provides regarding question one are explored. This strand is founded upon an objective reality, a reality that recognises that an intervention centred on the Simple View of Reading is capable of altering a student's reading attainment level and one where assessments are capable of measuring these levels of attainment.

In the beginning of Chapter 4, this data's function in determining potential cases is explored. As this study aspired to explore a low-attaining reader's relationship with text and an intervention's impact on this relationship, these cases were central to the study. The selection of low-attaining readers was necessary to ensuring their validity/legitimacy as key cases and the process utilised to determine these cases is outlined. Then, these participants are described along with the tutoring partnerships that they formed. The second part of this chapter presents the quantitative data that was collected. In order to determine the intervention's impact, standardised tests were provided in determining the intervention's impact on the attainment scores of the participants, along with discussing its implications towards answering question one.

In order to answer the second question, the second strand concentrated on ascertaining the students' perceptions of themselves as readers. As the second question is based on a subjective reality, where individuals form perceptions based on their interpretations of

society and themselves within it, it leads itself to qualitative data collection, which was obtained through interviews and observations. As proposed in Chapter 3, the most reliable and observable means of determining the participants' evolving self-perceptions was by asking them an open-ended question regarding their effectiveness of performing a specific task (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1996). The participants were asked about their ability to read the book listed in the following term's English curriculum (see Appendix F). The rest of the interview followed an informal, conversational format. These initial interviews occurred within the first week of the intervention's implementation, the beginning of Stage 1 for the tutors and the core group and the beginning of Stage 2 for the tutees. A thematic analysis of their responses was undertaken directly after the interview was given (see Appendix H).

Upon my initial analysis of these interviews, three conceptual categories emerged-- 1) The Reading- the participant's notion of the reading phenomenon; 2) The Reader- their perception of themselves as participants in this phenomenon and 3) The Relationships- their relationships with others involved with this tutoring process. After these categories arose in their initial interview, subsequent interviews focussed on exhuming their thoughts on these three concepts in more detail, utilising a general interview guided approach (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009) (see Appendix G). Written transcripts of these audibly recorded interviews were made and read through twice enabling these three concepts to emerge and the start to generating descriptors (see Appendix T). Then the transcripts were uploaded into the NVivo software (QSR, 2014) and the descriptors were electronically coded and assigned nodes. After this process, a comparison of the commonly used nodes gave rise to different themes and subthemes within each concept. At the completion of coding, the themes and subthemes that emerged were compared and found to align themselves to the topics addressed in my literature review. Although I knew that their responses could be influenced by their desire to report what they thought I wanted to hear or their over-confidence, observations were a means to validate these reports (Hafen, et. al., 2012).

During their reading time in each session, each partnership was audibly recorded on a weekly basis. These observations averaged in length between five and eighteen minutes. After the implementation phase, I transcribed these observations, paying close attention

to the errors made and the strategies implemented to correct them, along with any dialogue that occurred alongside the reading of the text. Included in these dialogues, there were discussions of the reading material and informal conversations with each other and other partnerships.

In order to monitor behaviour that could not be discerned over an audio recording, I also made daily general observations during and directly afterwards these sessions. These observations were comprised of their attendance, on and off-task behaviours and any significant statements that were made outside of their recorded sessions. Afterwards, these notes and observations were likened to the themes and sub-themes established from the interviews. These comparisons enabled me to verify the validity of the reports and take notice when there were deviations. Chapters 5, 6 and 7 contain my research findings based on these reports and observations.

Chapter 4- The Participants and Quantitative Data

4.1 The Selection Process

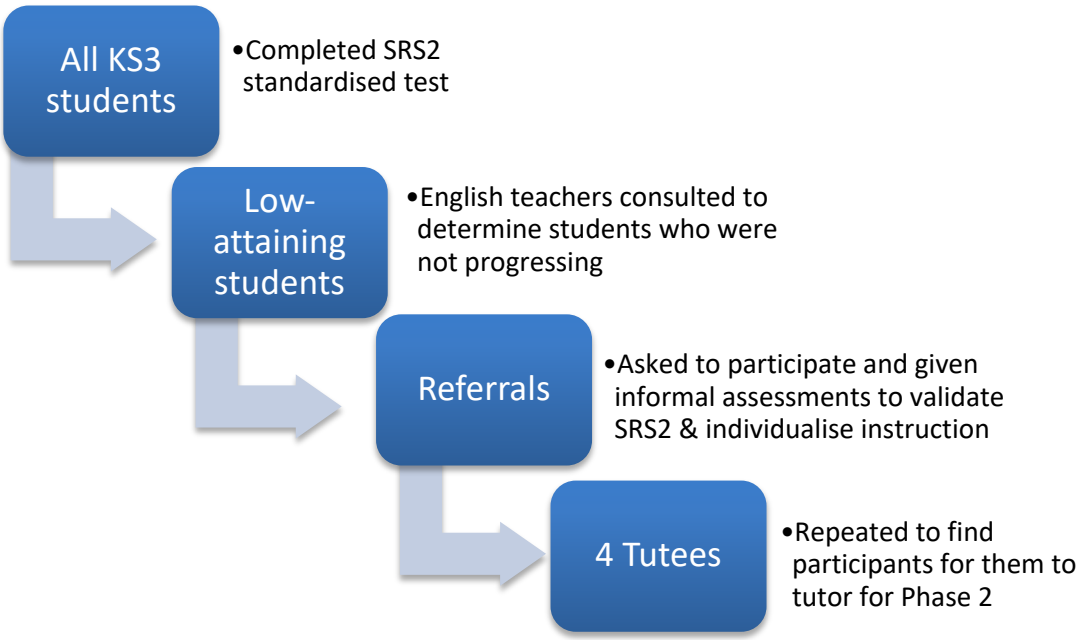


Diagram 2- The Selection Process

In order to explore the effects of combining the cognitive and emotional elements proposed as necessary by my literature review, it was necessary to locate four low-attaining secondary readers. Over the first term, these four students, referred to as "the core group" throughout this study, would receive intervention structured around individualised decoding and comprehension instruction delivered by tutors who had previously been low-attaining readers. Secondly, they would change roles and assume the role of tutor to four new low-attaining readers.

Selecting the four individuals to include in the core group began by looking at standardised test results for all of the student body and focusing on the students with the lowest scores within the key stage. Afterwards, I communicated with intervention instructors and English teachers to see if any of these students had or were receiving

assistance and whether these interventions had increased their attainment levels. The students who were not experiencing success after other intervention methods had been utilised were then contacted. Coinciding with Hall's (2006) reports that literacy attainment issues often correlate with poor behaviour, many of these students had exhibited negative behaviours that had led to many being referred to the school's Senior Management Team for poor behaviour.

Upon contacting these individuals and discussing the intervention and its aims, most students were eager to participate. A couple of students declined the offer and they were not contacted further. At this point, I conducted informal assessments consisting of reading different passages following Afflerbach's (2005) work that highlighted the need for assessments to replicate the actual reading process as much as possible. Additionally, this provided a means of checking the accuracy of the formal assessments as a few students performed at a much higher level than their standardised scores had alluded was possible.

After the four members of the core group had been selected, they needed to be paired with tutors. The above selection process had been utilised two years earlier to find a group of students who were involved with an intervention that involved parents and older siblings as tutors. These students had shown progress according to informal assessments taken at the time although this data was not analysed in this study. Individually, the prospective tutors were informed about the study and its aims and asked whether they wanted to participate. All of the students, except for one, immediately accepted the invitation. The willing participants were given an opportunity to express any preferences about who they were partnered with. As the school has a vertically stranded form time, the students are accustomed to working with students from different year groups. Therefore, age was not considered in the formation of these partnerships.

Table 1- Group Formations

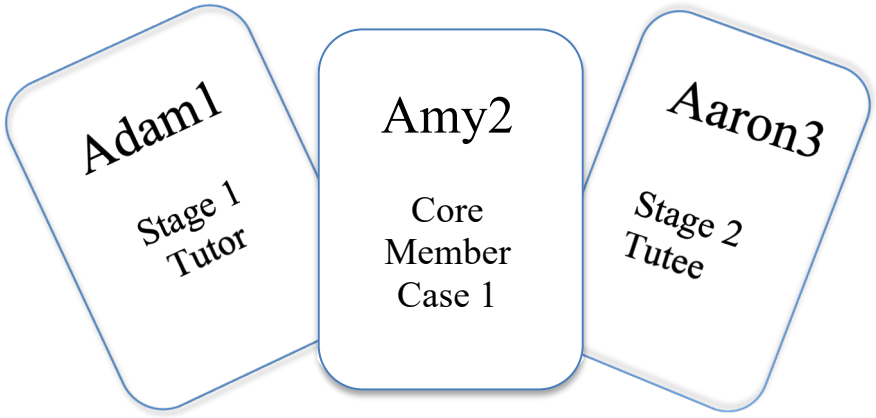
	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
Stage 1				
Tutor	Adam1	Beth1	Chloe1	Dani1
Tutee	Amy2a	Becky2a	Codey2a	Daisy2a
Stage 2				
Tutor	Amy2b	Becky2b	Codey2b	Daisy2b
Tutee	Aaron3	Benji3	Conor3	Dawn3

Each individual from the core group and the tutor and tutee that they were partnered with in each stage of the study comprises a case. Participants in the same cases are given pseudonyms beginning with the same letter. For additional clarity, the participants are further distinguished as following:

- The students who only assumed the tutor role have the number "1" placed at the end of their name, i.e. Adam1.
- The core group have a number "2" succeeding their names. Additionally, the letter "a" represents when they were acting as a tutee, i.e.- Amy2a.
- The core group have a letter "b" added to the end of their name when they were in the role of tutor, i.e.- Amy2b.
- When characteristics of the core group members are discussed that are consistent regardless of the role that they assumed, no letter is positioned after their names, i.e.- Amy2.
- The students who only assumed the tutee role have a number "3" placed at the end of their name, i.e. Aaron3.

4.2 The Cases

Case One



As a tutee, Amy2a was in Year 7 and had come from a local primary school. According to Amy, her primary school had not conducted any formal assessments but her past teachers told her that she was dyslexic and provided her with an overlay and intervention sessions. These sessions consisted of her, along with a few other students, being taken out of maths lessons to read aloud. Upon entering secondary school, the SRS2 (Hagley, 2001) measured that Amy2a was reading at the standard assumed for a child who was seven years and nine months of age; this was very low compared to her peers. The school provided intervention in the first term but her intervention instructor and her English teacher felt like these sessions had not been successful.

When I approached Amy2a about the study, she stated that she felt that she was "a good reader." After I told her about the intervention, she modified her previous response and said that she found reading "difficult." Confirming this second response, her scores on the first two informal assessments were similar to the standardised assessment. They indicated that she was reading at the standard assumed for a student who had been in Year 2 for 9 months and had difficulties decoding words with long vowels and diphthongs. When I invited her to participate in the study, she smiled and accepted the invitation, although she was concerned about the identity of the other participants.

Amy2a was partnered with Adam1, who was a Year 10 boy with a hearing impairment. Two years before, Adam1 was referred to me because he was low-attaining despite having attended many of the school's reading interventions. After participating in a reading intervention for a term with his mother acting as tutor, Adam1 scored higher on his school end-of-year assessments than his classmates and he was moved to work with peers who had performed better on their end-of-year exams.

At the start of this study, the SRS2 rated that his reading was at the standard assumed for a twelve-year-old child. Adam1 was conscientious-- always prompt and ready to work, along with being mild-mannered. He expressed his desire to help someone else, who had struggled like he had, and he took his role very seriously. Additionally, he asserted his feelings that this intervention would increase his own reading skills.

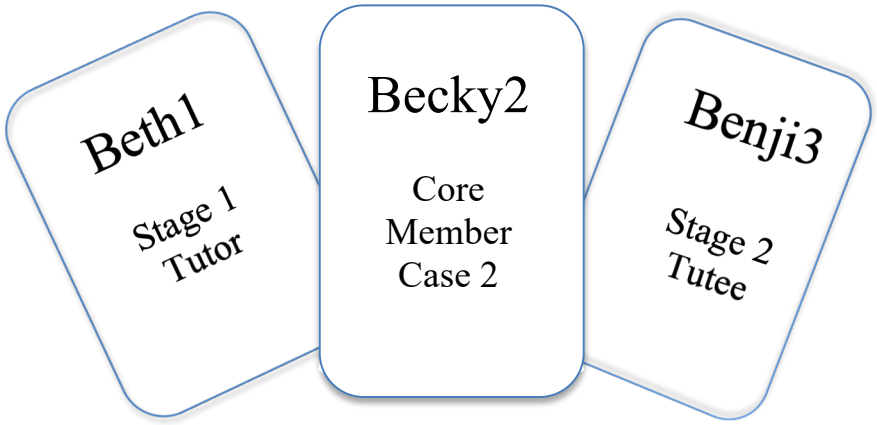
During the sessions, Amy2a and Adam1 often talked and laughed with the other partnerships but they focussed when it was time to work. My observations of their recorded sessions indicated that generally he took charge but he always inquired about her preferences and opinions. While reading she made frequent errors, he waited for her to make a couple of attempts before offering a correction. She stated her great displeasure when Adam1 could not attend while completing end-of-year exams. When these exams finished early and he was given this extra time for an extended lunch, he preferred to come and spend the time reading with Amy2a and expressed pride in helping himself and someone else in bettering their lives.

Upon returning from summer holidays, Amy2b was partnered with Aaron3, who was also in Year 8, after she refused to work with another individual. Although Aaron3's SRS2 score measured that he was reading at the standard assumed of a child who was nine-years and eight-months old, this was not the lowest in his year group. However, his English teacher recommended him to the study as she felt his reading skills had not progressed substantially with the intervention that she had provided. His informal assessment scores confirmed that Aaron3 was reading below the average, at a standard assumed for a student who had been in Year 4 for 6 months and revealed that he had difficulties decoding with diphthongs. His teachers reported his quiet and unexpected departures from the classroom that lasted until the end of the lesson and ended in his

repeated referrals to members of the senior management for further discipline. Upon being invited to attend the sessions, Aaron3 readily accepted.

Although Amy2b knew of Aaron3, they were not well acquainted. Despite having higher standardised and informal test scores, Aaron3 often took an almost submissive role in their partnership. My observations revealed them offering corrections to each other, as well as Amy2b asking probing questions about the reading material that she restated until Aaron3 offered the desired response. Even though they often talked to other partnerships, they seemed to focus on and enjoy the work. The teachers' earlier warnings about Aaron3's attendance were not observed during the project. By the end of the term, they both stated their positive feelings regarding the success of their partnership and the sessions.

Case Two



Becky2a stated that in primary school her teachers had suggested that she was dyslexic. According to Becky2a, these assessments revealed that "I wasn't as severe as most people in my class. I did have it but I don't like have it now." At the beginning of secondary school, Becky2a's SRS2 score indicated that she was reading at a standard assumed of a child that was eight-years and five-months old and she was assigned a teaching assistant to take her out of her English class to read. Her English teacher felt like these sessions had not been successful and that she exhibited behaviour issues in the classroom.

During our first interview, Becky2a immediately expressed that her reading skills were poor and a source of embarrassment and she was keen to participate in the intervention. The scores from her first two informal assessments confirmed the scores of the standardised assessment's indication that her reading abilities were below her peers and was reading at a standard assumed for a student who had been in Year 3 for six months. These informal assessments also suggested that her intervention required decoding words with long vowels and diphthongs.

In order to assist with her confidence issues, Becky2a was partnered with Beth1, a Year 10 girl. Beth1 was referred to me two years earlier because she appeared to display a low self-concept and was reading at a level equivalent to the average students in Year 4 despite receiving many intervention methods during primary and secondary school. Beth1's mother was very supportive in providing tutoring sessions that culminated in her confidence levels, reading skills and English sets increasing.

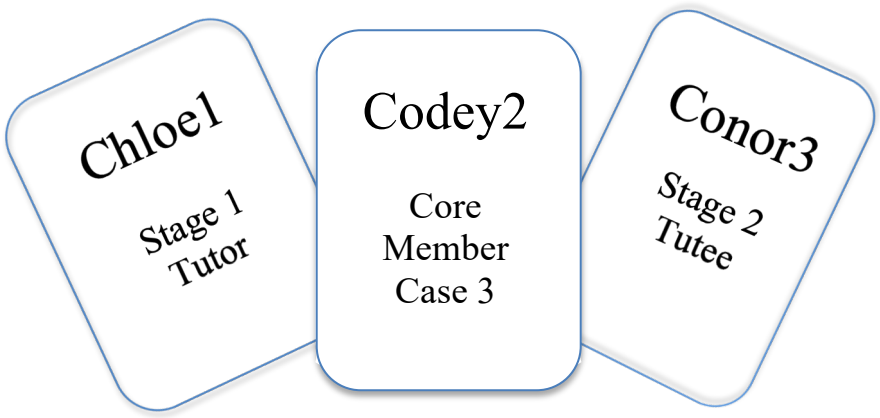
Upon taking the SRS2 assessment at the beginning of the intervention, her score indicated that she was reading at a standard assumed of a child who was ten-years and six-months old. She was very excited by the opportunity to assist another student. Becky2a and Beth1 quickly became close to each other and other students in their session. Throughout these sessions, the observations revealed that they discussed the book, as well as their lives in general. Although Beth1 led the book discussions, the corrections and advice that she offered were given in a rather submissive manner. They both offered reassurances to one another and expressed disappointment whenever the other was absent. They reported that their close relationship carried on after the end of the sessions as they would text, call and message each other through social media.

During the second session, Becky2b was partnered with another Year 8, Benji3. He had received many different reading interventions in primary school. When he began secondary school, Benji3's low scores attracted the local authority's reading specialist but the interventions that he proposed resulted in little progress. At the start of Year 8, the SRS2 measured that he was reading at a standard attributed to an eight-year and four-months old child. However, his initial informal assessments indicated that he was reading at a standard assumed of a student who had been in Year 2 for nine months; this

discrepancy suggested that these assessments were possibly inaccurate. He welcomed my invitation to attend the intervention sessions.

While Becky2b and Benji3 were in the same science class, Benji3 believed that Becky2b disliked him although she felt that he was an acquaintance that she wanted to know better. They both had different perceptions of their relationship throughout the intervention as well. As Becky2b saw them as a team working towards the same goal, Benji3 felt like Becky2b was often too focused on socialising with others and pestering him. The recorded observations indicated that unlike Beth1's tutoring style, Becky2b was much more authoritative. However, both reported increases in their confidence and reading levels by the end of the sessions.

Case Three



According to Codey2a, his primary teacher suggested that he was dyslexic. When he was formally tested, he was not identified as having the condition. He received intervention methods consisting of extra reading sessions with four other students and he enjoyed them. Upon entering secondary school and taking the SRS2 assessment, his scored indicated that he was reading at a standard attributed to an eight-year-old student. This low score prompted the school to place him in literacy intervention classes but his English teacher and intervention instructor were concerned by his lack of progress.

After discussing the intervention with Codey2a, he agreed to participate due to his desire to improve his reading skills. The informal assessments confirmed that his reading skills

were lower than his peers, and that he was reading at a standard assumed for a Year 4 level students and had problems decoding words with long vowels and diphthongs.

Codey2 was partnered with Chloe1, a Year 9 girl. After attending several intervention sessions in Year 7 that were not significantly successful, Chloe1's mother tutored her for a term and the school's informal assessments showed progress, especially with her processing issues. This progress led to her advancing into a higher-levelled English class. At the beginning of the intervention sessions, her SRS2 assessment score attributed her to reading at a standard attributed to a ten-years and four-months child.

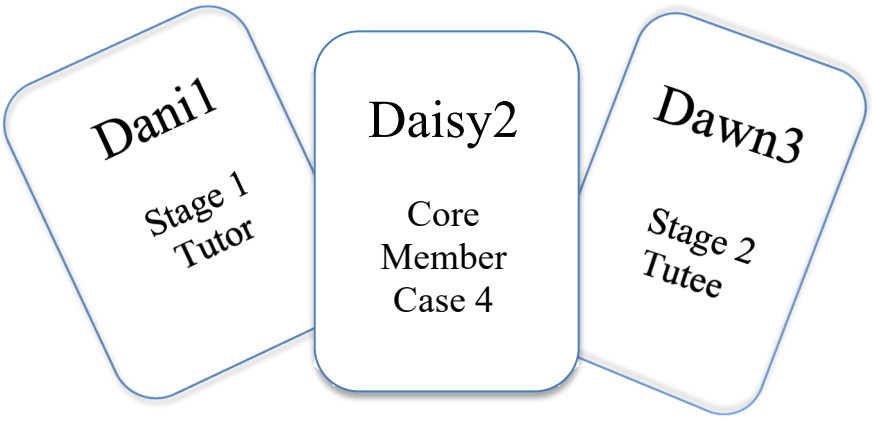
Initially, Chloe1 welcomed the invitation to participate but she did not attend the first session. Her form tutor indicated that the reason behind this was her anxiety over working with an individual whom she was not acquainted; by the second session, she decided to make an effort to assist someone else. At the end of the sessions, her attitude had completely changed and she was upset by the prospect of not attending the sessions any longer. Chloe1 and Codey2a reported that they enjoyed working together and the recorded observations revealed that they conversed freely and both attempted to assist each other although Codey2a found frequent reasons to get up from his seat. Upon interviewing Chloe1, she stated a wish that she had been more direct in her requests as a tutor because she felt like she had done the greater portion of the work.

When he returned from the summer holidays, Codey2b was partnered with Conor3, a Year 7 boy. As Conor3 entered secondary school, he was reading at a standard attributed to a child of seven-years and five-months according to the SRS2 assessment, which was very low compared to his peers, and his instructor recommended him to the intervention. His informal assessment scores were similar to the standardised assessments and indicated that he was reading at a level assumed for a student who had been in Year 3 for one month and required assistance to decode words with digraphs and long vowels. The invitation to participate in the intervention was readily accepted.

According to their interviews and the recorded observations, Codey2b and Conor3 were at ease with one another almost immediately. Although Codey2b led discussions about the book, they both offered corrections to one another whenever a mistake was made. They also had a system that equalised the amount of reading. They both commented on

their excitement about the improvements that each had made; the team that they had formed and the friendship existing between themselves and the other partners.

Case Four



As a tutee, Daisy2 was a Year 7. According to Daisy2, her local primary school reported that she was dyslexic but she did not recall being formally assessed. Similarly, she stated that her school offered literacy interventions in the form of extra reading lessons that she was extracted out of other lessons to attend. When she began secondary school, she received a SRS2 score indicating that she was reading at a standard attributed to a child that was 8-years and five-months old, which was much lower than her peers. On completion of the school's literacy intervention, both her intervention instructor and English teacher were disappointed by her lack of progress.

When I extended an invitation to attend the intervention's sessions, she smiled and accepted. The initial informal assessment established the low reading levels suggested by the standardised assessments and was reading at a standard attributed to a student who had been in Year 3 for six months. The informal assessment also indicated that she had difficulties decoding words with long vowels.

Daisy2a was partnered with Dani1, who was a Year 9 girl who said she disliked reading. She recalled participating in an intervention to increase her low reading scores. After the school's intervention sessions did not experience their desired effect, she was referred to

a parent-led tutoring programme of intervention and informal assessments taken after these sessions revealed significant improvement to her decoding skills.

During the sessions, Dani1 and Daisy2a were very focussed on the work although they did not discuss their reading very often. Unlike the other groups, they chose to read magazines and switched their reading material a couple of times during the sessions. While reading, Dani1 made suggestions to Daisy2a but she always permitted her to make the choices regarding when and how much she read. This freedom was extended to their reading and personal discussions.

When Daisy2b returned as a tutor, she was partnered with Dawn3. As a Year 7 girl, Dawn3 received a standardised score that measured her as reading at a standard assumed of a child of seven-years and six-months old, a score that was much lower than her peers. Her initial two informal assessment scores suggested that she was reading at a standard assumed for a student who had been in Year 4 for nine months; this discrepancy between the two assessments and suggested that her reading skills were perhaps not as low as the standardised assessments had first revealed. As her scores were still low along with her confidence, Dawn3 and her parents were still very keen for her to be involved with the intervention. Her higher scores on the informal assessment implied that her reading skills were actually more advanced than her tutor's skills. Upon listening to the recorded observations, this discrepancy was not visible in their tutoring sessions. Daisy2b always led the discussions and took a more authoritative role in their relationship. Her leadership position was not overpowering and a friendship seemed to evolve between the partners. They also shared an excitement for reading outside of the classroom and a pride in their reading skill improvements.

4.3 Quantitative Data

As designated by the literature in Chapter 2, an effective programme of intervention would be comprised of both decoding and comprehension instruction. The first strand needed to determine the participants' levels of attainment and to envision any impact created by the intervention. As this strand is based on the cognitive psychological perspective, merit is given to an assessment's ability to determine reading attainment. In

order to further ensure this data was reliable, the utilisation of both formal and informal assessments enabled triangulation of the data.

In order to reveal participants who were low-attaining in comparison to their peers, data was obtained from both standardised and informal assessments as delineated in the previous chapter. As students come from seventeen primary schools, they are given the level 3A version of the Suffolk Reading Scale 2 (Hagley, 2001) at the beginning of Years 7 and 8 to assist in determining class compositions and candidates for intervention. I continued to employ this assessment as to maintain consistency.

In order to ensure that the data was valid, it was necessary for these exam results to be recent. If more than a month had passed from the time that the test had been administered, then the participants completed another SRS2 exam to ensure that the data was relevant. As Stage 1 commenced in the school's third term, this meant that all of the participants from this stage had to complete the exam a week before the study began to provide baseline data. In order to minimise the "practice effects" of the assessment, a six-month interval is proposed by its authors (Hagley, 2002). In intervals shorter than six months, the parallel form was utilised. As each stage of the study lasted twelve weeks, SRS2 Form B was given to determine impact at the completion of the stage. In the case of the core group members, this did not provide sufficient time to administer the SRS2 Form A an additional time. Therefore, the core group members took their pre-test at the beginning of Stage 1 and their final test at the completion of Stage 2. In order to ensure the reliability of this data, each assessment was marked twice shortly after completion and these calculations were verified before entering them on to the system.

4.3.1 Analysis of the Standardised Assessments

On Table 2, the results from the twelve students' standardised assessments are displayed. These twelve individuals were comprised of four students that acted as tutors during Stage 1; four students who played the role of tutees in Stage 1 and tutors in Stage 2 (hereafter referred to as the core group) and four tutees from Stage 2. Their correct responses to these 86 questions provided the raw scores. Afterwards, these raw scores were converted into the reading age equivalencies provided by the SRS2 (Hagley, 2001)

and were derived by averaging the age group of students with the same raw score. The utilisation of the age equivalent score was necessary for two reasons. Firstly, some of the tutors were above the age of the SRS2's standardisation sample. Secondly, as the purpose of the standardised assessment was to provide insight into the participants' progress during the stage, the age equivalency was required as it permits progression towards more difficult text to be understood more readily.

Table 2- SRS2 Age Equivalency

	Pre-Test			**Post-Test**			
Tutors	Actual Age	SRS2 Age	Discrepancy	Actual Age	SRS2 Age	Discrepancy	Difference
Adam	15.7	12.0	43	15.11	14.3	34	9
Beth	15.1	10.6	55	15.5	11.8	45	10
Chloe	14.1	10.4	45	14.5	11.5	36	9
Dani	14.9	10.8	49	15.1	11.8	41	8
Core Group							
Amy	11.2	7.9	41	12.2	10.9	17	24
Becky	11.7	8.5[1]	38	12.7	12.0	7	31
Codey	11.11	8.0	47	12.11	9.9	38	9
Daisy	11.7	8.5	38	12.7	12.0	7	31
Tutees							
Aaron	12.11	9.8	39	13.3	11.3	24	15
Benji	12.2	8.4	46	12.5	8.0	53	-7
Conor	11.0	7.5	43	11.4	9.7	21	22
Dawn	11.6	7.6	48	11.9	10.3	18	30

[1] On both their initial and final assessments, Becky2 and Daisy2's errors and correct responses deviated, indicating that their responses were their own. Therefore, I am confident that their similar scores are merely coincidental.

According to the students' responses to the preliminary SRS2 exam, the core group ranged from 7.9 to 8.5 in their equivalent reading ages with an 8.1 mean score. The equivalent reading ages of the tutees were 7.5 to 9.8 with an 8.3 average. Both the core group members and tutees had similar reading age equivalents, which coincided with their similar ages and their tutee role at the time these initial assessments were conducted. These reading age equivalencies correlated with the RAND (2002) project that found that low-attaining readers have difficulties comprehending texts past a Year 3 level due to their increasing complexity.

In contrast, the tutors performed better on the preliminary SRS2 with reading equivalencies of 10.4 to 12.0 with a 10.9 mean score, suggesting that they were able to access materials with an increasing complexity on average of 2.7 years. Even though their increased age and time in school could relate to these increased levels of comprehension, Snowling and Hulme (2012) appoint the necessity of explicit comprehension instruction to meet the challenges of these more advanced texts. The variation in the tutors' performance on the SRS2 pre-test to that of the other participants could also relate to their participation in an intervention two years earlier that included explicit comprehension strategies and aimed at helping students reach a Year 6 reading level. On the SRS2 post-test, these eight participants, with the exception of Benji3, had scores ranging from 9.7 to 11.3, suggesting that the comprehension instruction had been efficient enough to have them progress above this upper Year 3 level and to begin reading these more demanding texts.

At the start of the intervention, the tutors' actual ages ranged from 14.1 to 15.7 with a 14.9 average. The core group's actual ages were 11.2 to 11.11 with 11.6 being the mean score while 11.0 to 12.11 was the range for the tutees' actual ages with 11.9 being the average. Although the tutors were selected due to their previous involvement with a similar programme of intervention, the difference between their ages to the core group members' ages when acting as tutor provided me with an opportunity to witness a possible link between age and tutoring relationships. Past research has pointed towards the importance of age in tutoring partnerships and highlighted the optimal age difference between tutee and tutors as two years (Goodlad & Hirst, 1990; Sharpley & Sharpley, 1981). However, new research into tutoring relationships has not discussed the

significance of age to tutoring partnerships, making this information a valuable source in analysing the relationships that were formed. When attempting to understand the partnerships that were created, the average age difference between the tutors and core group members was 39 months, indicating that they were cross-age tutors. Whereas, the average age difference between the core group members and the tutees was 4.5 months, suggesting that they had same-age tutoring partnerships.

As the core group members participated in the intervention over two stages, it was important to take account for the participants' age variations between the two exams. I did this by using the discrepancy between their actual age and the SRS2 proposed reading age equivalent from both their pre and post-tests. For the tutors, these ranged from eight to ten with an average of nine months. The discrepancies from the core group ranged from 9 to 31 months with a mean score of 23.8 months and the tutees' discrepancies were from a decrease of seven months to a gain of 30 months with an average of 15.0 months. According to this data, each group of participants experienced an increase in their reading ages that exceeded any increase that would be expected from their age and the time difference. This indicates that the tutoring sessions were the cause for this increase. Even though each individual progressed at different rates, they all increased except for Benji3.

As the tutor group experienced an average of nine months in a twelve-week period, this is significant progress and contradicts reports by Fitz-Gibbon (2006) and Topping (2005) that a tutor's progress is minimal when there is a great difference between themselves and their tutee. However, the tutor group did not advance as much as the other groups, suggesting that individuals in the role of tutor did not progress to the same extent as those who had been in the tutee role at some point in the intervention. This could suggest that the tutees' greater progress was due to the Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1978) and the tutors' greater abilities acting as a propeller to move them forward. However, in the same-age partnerships between the core group members and tutees, the tutees also made substantial gains. The average core group members' discrepancies were equal to the average discrepancies of the tutors added to the average discrepancies of the tutees. As the core group members had performed each role, this is indicative that individuals in the tutors' role would increase an average of nine months while individuals

in the tutees' role would advance an average of 15 months, regardless of whether they were in cross-age or same-age tutoring partnerships.

However, age equivalencies have disadvantages that must be recognised. Hagley (2002) explains, "one year in age equivalent does not represent the same progress at different ages" because with high age equivalents "a gain of a year is a smaller change in terms of the ability to read than a similar gain at low age equivalents" (p. 32). This difference is due to abilities being attributed to the square root of age rather than the individual's direct age on the assessment. A standardisation score does not attempt to equate age equivalency, making these formulas unnecessary. In addition, standardised scores enable comparisons to the standardisation sample. Therefore, the standardised scores are provided on Table 3, despite two of the tutors having surpassed the ages of the standardisation populations. The standardised scores were determined by comparing the raw scores of the participants on the SRS2 to individuals of the same age from whom the standardisation sample was derived. These scores are listed on Column A. For Column B, the same process was conducted with the raw scores from the assessments given on their completion of the intervention. Thus, both sets of scores were taken at the end of Stage 2.

Table 3- Standardised Scores

CORE GROUP MEMBERS				
	Amy	**Becky**	**Codey**	**Daisy**
Pre-Test SS	75	78	74	78
Pre-Test Confidence Band	71-83	74-86	70-82	74-86
Percentile Rank	5	7	4	7
Post-Test SS	92	98	80	98
Post-Test Confidence Band	87-99	92-106	76-88	92-106
Percentile Rank	30	45	9	45

TUTEES				
	Aaron	**Benji**	**Conor**	**Dawn**
Pre-Test SS	79	74	73	71
Pre-Test Confidence Band	75-87	70-82	69-81	67-79
Percentile Rank	8	4	4	3
Post-Test SS	88	70	89	91
Post-Test Confidence Band	83-95	66-78	84-96	86-98
Percentile Rank	22	2	24	28

At the beginning of Stage 1, the core group members' standardised scores ranged from 74 to 78 with only four points of variation and their average score was 76.3. As the average score centres on 100, this indicates that all of the core group members' scores were substantially lower than the average. This is corroborated by the percentile ranks that indicated that their skills placed them in the bottom four to seven per cent of the standardisation sample.

By the end of Stage 2, the core groups' scores ranged from 80 to 98 with a mean score of 92. Unlike the scores from the pre-test, there is a great fluctuation between the individual scores, suggesting that one member of the core group did not progress to the same degree as the others. Three participants' confidence bands between the two assessments do not

overlap, ensuring that progress had occurred over the study. Their reading comprehension had increased and they were considered 'average' in comparison to the standardisation sample (Hagley, 2002, p. 31).

In comparison, the tutees' scores only include one stage. At the beginning of Stage 2, the tutees' standardised scores ranged from 71 to 79. The range of eight is not substantial but it indicates that there was a greater range between the participants acting as tutees than those in the core group. However, an average standardised score of 74.3 is only slightly below that of the core group members, implying that they also commenced the study with scores substantially below those of the standardisation sample. This is further witnessed in range of their percentile ranks from three to eight with a 4.8 mean percentile.

At the end of the stage, their standardised scores ranged from 70 to 91 with an 84.5 mean score. Three of the tutees' scores only differed by three points while there was a substantial difference between their scores and the other participant. Their percentile ranks placed them in 2 to 28 percentage of the standardisation population. The difference between their percentile ranks suggested that the tutees rose on average of 12.8 percentages in comparison to the standardisation sample. Over the stage, the difference in between their pre-test and post-test scores ranged from -4 to 20 points with an average of 10.3. Although this suggests that one tutee's skills had decreased over the stage, the confidence bands imply that his scores were within the range that could be indicative of an amount of progress between the two stages. Between the pre and post-tests, the confidence bands do not overlap for two of the tutees, signifying that at least two of the tutees had progressed and were considered "average" in comparison to the standardisation population.

4.3.2 Analysis of the Informal Assessments

As Schumm and Arguelles (2006a) advise, formal, standardised assessments are best employed as screening tools to be followed by less formal methods of gauging an individual's skill level. After utilising the SRS2 data to determine potential candidates, informal assessments in the form of running records were given to the individual candidates. Following Coles's (2006) recommendations, these informal assessments

were based closely on the authentic use of skills and were given in as natural a setting as possible, an empty classroom free from scrutiny by other students.

The curriculum-based measures were given by incorporating the SMOG (Simplified Measure of Gobbledygook) Readability Formula (McLaughlin, 1969) that is constructed for use with secondary-aged students. This formula calculates the readability of a text by examining ten sentences at the beginning, middle and end of the passage and counting the number of three-syllable words that appear. Then the square root of the sum is rounded to the nearest tenth and three is added to this figure. The number that is reached is considered the reading school year and months that an individual must have reached to be able to read and understand the passage. Even though a formula's ability to accurately determine a student's level of reading attainment is debateable, they can convey a participant's ability to read multisyllabic words.

First, the tutees were asked to read texts graduating in difficulty according to this formula until they were unable to reach 95% accuracy. This type of assessment was conducted every three weeks using levelled passages, which the participants had not read previously. This provided a quantitative score from which to measure any change in a student's reading level and to make decisions regarding the individualisation of instruction. The assessment scores from the four individuals comprising the core group during their time as tutees and the tutees from Stage 2 were analysed.

Table 4- SMOG Readability Levels of the Core Group

Weeks in Intervention	Amy	Becky	Codey	Daisy
1	2.9	3.6	4	3.6
4	3.1	3.9	4.2	4
7	3.6	5.2	4.6	5.8
10	4.2	5.7	4.9	7.6

As the SMOG Readability Formula measures in school years rather than age levels, the dependent variables considered for both the standardised and informal assessment are

different and cannot be compared explicitly. Additionally, the SRS2 measures for reading comprehension while the informal assessment examined a participant's ability to decode words. Trends in both datasets can be compared. Therefore, the core groups' initial scores ranging from 2.9 to 4.0 indicate that they were reading at a level far below that expected of someone in their year group. These scores are also comparable to the discrepancy between their actual age and its SRS2 reading age equivalent and correspond with the Year 3 level when texts become more challenging (Snowling & Hulmes, 2011). The scores of the preliminary informal assessments confirmed those of the standardised assessments, indicating that these four individuals qualified to be participants. They also exposed gaps in their coding skills that needed to be filled in order for the participants to progress (Sanders, 2001) and helped individualise instruction.

The three subsequent informal assessments and their results are displayed on Table 4. The participants' performance on their running records indicate that their ability to read passages with increasing multisyllabic words had developed and highlighted the benefits of breaking words down into their parts (Hall, 2010).

According to the preliminary informal assessments, the four tutees' SMOG Readability Levels ranged from 2.6 to 4.9 school year levels, as seen on Table 5. Similar to the discrepancies demonstrated by the SRS2 between actual age and their reading age equivalents, these scores indicated the students were reading below their actual age. This supports the standardised assessment data that suggested that they would be good candidates for this intervention. The tutees' following three informal assessments showed progression from this score, suggesting a similar growth in their abilities as to that of the core group members, which also correlated with their time as a tutee.

Table 5- Tutee SMOG Readability Levels

Weeks in Programme	Aaron	Benji	Conor	Dawn
1	4.6	2.9	3.1	4.9
4	5.7	3.6	3.9	6.7
7	6.2	4.2	4.2	7.6
10	7.5	5.2	5.7	7.9

The extent of these variations differed for two of the tutees between the standardised and informal assessments. According to her initial SRS2 assessment, Dawn3's level of reading attainment was substantially below her actual age and was one of the lowest scores of the participants. In contrast, her informal assessment indicated that her level of attainment was closer to her actual age than the standardised score suggested. Conversely, Benji3's initial standardised assessment score was one of the highest of both the core group members and tutees but his initial running record was one of the lowest.

In consideration of the running records of the core group members and the tutees, every participant exhibited their abilities to decode passages with increasing levels of difficulty according to the SMOG Readability formula (McLaughlin, 1969). Similarly, this trend was demonstrated in the standardised assessments' results, with one exception; Benji3's standardised assessment scores decreased. Hagley (2002), who compiled the SRS2 assessment tool, proposed possible causes for discrepancies of individual's scores:

> Short-term measurements for the average progress of groups may be estimated by this means. For individuals, however, the degree of error is larger, and in comparing two scores one is compounding two sources of error. In cases where one might want to monitor closely the progress of individuals, three or more scores showing a trend would be more indicative of progress than just two scores. In some cases, however, close informal observation as well as the use of individual tests might also be necessary to supplement scores (p. 32).

Therefore, the running records provided a means to validate these scores and most participants' performances on both types of assessments exposed similar trends towards improvement. These findings are consistent with Paris et. al.'s (2005) declaration that

decoding and comprehension scores would naturally correspond due to the need to be able to read words to be able to understand them. Benji3's performances suggest that his initial standardised assessment score was inconsistent with the other assessment scores and suggest that decoding was occurring in a state of 'mindlessness' (Nguyen, et. al., 2014). In terms of the other participants, their performances suggest significant progress in being able to answer comprehension questions utilising the cloze method and reading multi-syllabic words. Nevertheless, the other participants' similar scores on both assessments affirms Stahl and Hiebert's (2005) conclusion that assessments of decoding and cloze measurements of comprehension would correlate. According to the Simple View of Reading, progress in both of these areas indicate that the participants were more successful in cognitively processing the reading material and that the participants' levels of reading attainment had increased. However, meaningful reading does not occur without the addition of the reader's emotional and social involvement with the text (Watkins & Coffey, 2004), indicating that these aspects contributed to this progress.

Chapter 5- The Reading

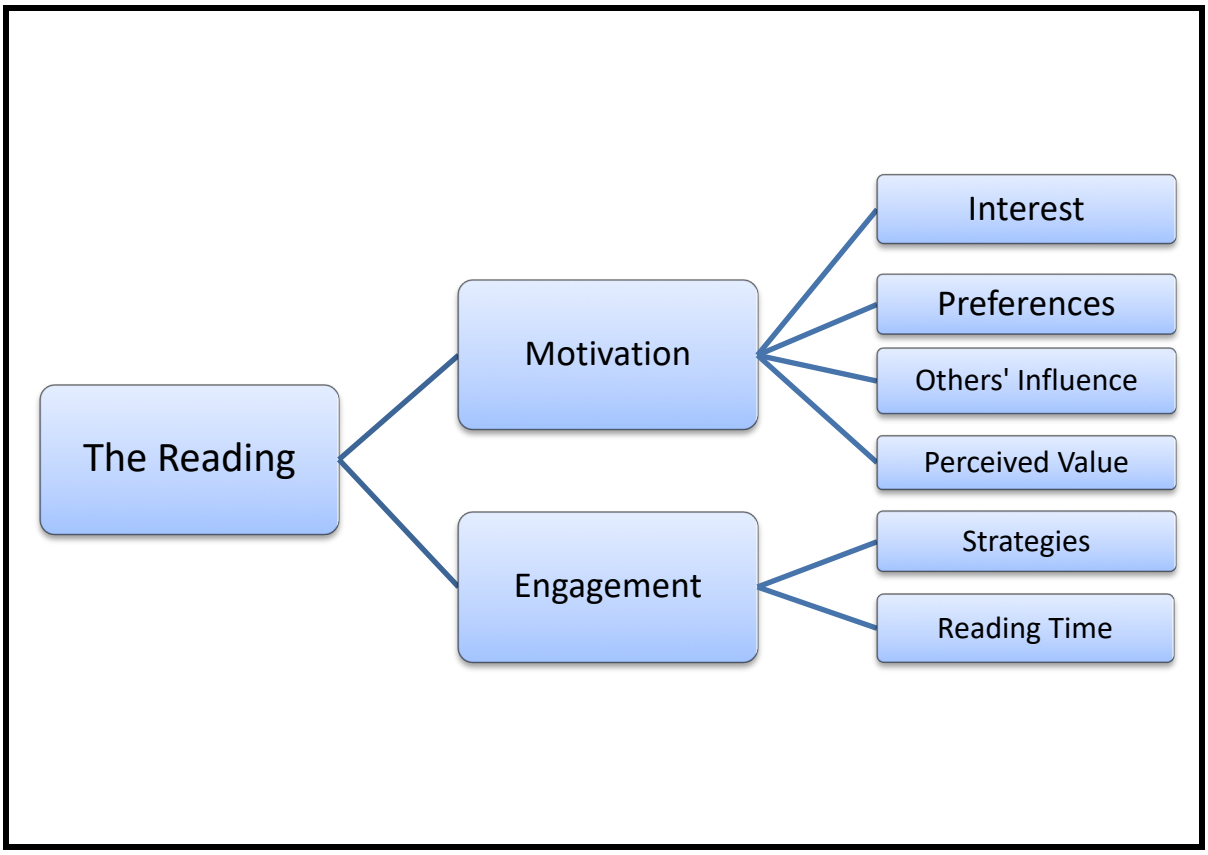


Diagram 3- The Reading

This chapter centres round the participant's perceptions of the abstract skill of reading and its role within their lives. Goodman et. al. (2005) define reading as the unspoken relationship between the reader and the text. As it is impossible to visually witness this relationship, the participants' responses illuminated their relationships with text and its function in their lives. When posed with the question regarding their ability to read the text from their subsequent term's English curriculum, many participants' responses were almost automatic. During the unstructured interview, further open-ended questions began to reveal their thoughts about reading and its role in their lives. During the coding process, their responses pertaining to this concept were encompassed by the wider themes of motivation and engagement and each of these themes comprises a section in this

chapter, succeeded by a section where the role of these themes on the tutoring intervention are reflected upon.

5.1 Intrinsic and extrinsic Motivations to Read

When the participants discussed reading, their responses revealed the role that reading played, or did not play, in their lives. Motivation is the driving force that initiates and maintains an individual's participation in an activity (Schunk, et. al., 2013). As mentioned in Chapter 2, this force is generated by factors that are external or internal to the individual. An intrinsically motivated individual will read according to the enjoyment and interest level that the action of reading or a particular text holds for them and these motivations are internally constructed. In contrast, an extrinsically motivated individual reads to obtain the desirable outcome awaiting them at the end of the task that will be delivered through external means. Ideally, individuals will have a higher intrinsic motivation for the task of reading as it will lead to them reading more frequently. Upon classifying the data pertaining to the motivation that reading represented for them, four subthemes emerged from the data. This section is further broken down into the subthemes—interests, preferences, others' influence and perceived value.

5.1.1 Interest to Read

In their initial interview, Adam1, Conor3 and Dawn3 indicated that they enjoyed reading while the other nine participants stated negative feelings towards the action. The substantial number of participants who indicated a poor attitude towards reading is consistent with reports that students' intrinsic motivation declines substantially by secondary school (McCardle et. al., 2008; Unrau & Schlackman, 2006). Considering that the individuals chosen for this project were those with the lowest standardised scores in the school who had failed to improve with the school's intervention methods, it is not surprising that most of the participants reported a dislike for reading. Many mentioned that their aversion for the activity began in the higher primary grades, correlating with studies that show a gradual decrease in intrinsic motivation throughout their school years.

This decrease has been found to be particularly high for older students with lower reading abilities (McKenna et. al., 1995). Corresponding with the participants' initial dislike for reading, their scores on their first standardised assessments were also very low in comparison to their peers. The core group members' and tutees' standardised scores ranged from 71 to 79, meaning that they were substantially lower than the average score of 100. These scores imply that reading was more difficult for the participants than most of their peers and the hard work that they most likely associated with reading became a deterrent. Although three participants reported their enjoyment for the reading process, there was no significant difference between their age equivalent scores and the other nine participants.

One reason for this aversion could relate to what they perceived the action of reading to represent. When asked regarding their ability to read the text, Adam1 stated that he might "mispronounce a few words" and Aaron3 felt that he "didn't really know how to pronounce words." Dani1, Dawn3 and Becky2 articulated their fears of struggling with difficult words in the text. While focussing on the decoding component of reading, they failed to recognise the significance of comprehension to the reading process. Despite the equality of both elements in the Simple View of Reading, the tendency is for decoding to be considered as more significant than comprehension to linear formula advocates (Tennent, 2015). According to this formula, the participants' low levels of attainment could indicate that, as proposed by Perfetti, et. al. (1996), their mental capacity and concentration were fully expended on decoding the text. Thus, comprehension did not occur. As the participants' decoding skills progressively increased, they were able to gradually dedicate more of their mental capacities towards comprehending the text (Perfetti et. al., 1996; Pressley & Allington, 2014). Therefore, comprehension increased in significance and value to the participants and they became engaged with the text. However, it could also suggest that the explicit comprehension instruction had made its significance to the process more apparent where previously it had not been.

By the final interview, eight participants who had previously reported negatively about reading had altered their opinions. At the beginning of her time as a tutor, Amy had likewise changed her previously negative position:

AHW: Do you enjoy reading?

Amy2b: I do! When I read a book, I enjoy it.

AHW: Did you before?

Amy2b: No, because I didn't take it in... Like at primary, we had to read out loud. We got in a circle and we had to read out loud. In six weeks, I just wouldn't read. In seventh grade, I didn't read. Then, I came here and I've read and enjoyed it.

Instead of viewing reading as the relationship between the reader, text and activity (Snow, 2002), the words, "Read out loud," suggest that Amy2b perceived reading as merely saying words out loud. Furthermore, her description of a good reader as "making the book flow" implies that the reader's function was superficial. Instead of becoming engaged with the process and building an internal relationship with the text, Amy2b was more focussed on the decoding process than comprehension. As it is the more outwardly apparent of the two, this could also suggest that decoding's significance was due to its capability of being noticed by her peers.

In her final interview and after she had assumed the role of tutor, she envisioned this relationship as something more intimate as she contrasted her current reading behaviour to that of before when she "didn't take it in," insinuating that she now perceived the role of the reader as more significant. During her time as a tutor, her role as a reader had changed from something superficial to that of making meaning. Reading had become a meaning-making process. Correlating with this stronger relationship, she now read "and enjoyed it," indicating that reading had become more enjoyable and a source of intrinsic interest.

The three participants who had reported positively in the initial interview affirmed that their pleasure had intensified due to specific reasons, such as its ability to help them "learn more words." Identifying reading as more than merely saying words, these participants began to visualise the purposes and consequences of the activity. In his first interview, Adam1 associated reading with the function of knowing the pronunciation and

meaning of words. By his final interview, comprehension and the reader became more significant in this relationship:

AHW: Do you enjoy reading?

Adam1: Yeah. A lot more since the tutoring.

AHW: What do you find enjoyable about it?

Adam1: The thought process of it. Thinking about what's going on and what's going to happen next.

As the students' reports of enjoyment slowly increased, they began to progressively identify their significance in this relationship. While motivation is necessary for engagement, a motivated individual is not necessarily engaged (McCardle et. al., 2008). Even though students were either extrinsically or intrinsically motivated to read, they seemed to merely be reading words and not engaged with the process. This corresponded to their view of reading. When they became more intrinsically interested in the process of reading, they experienced engagement and began to relate the reading process with comprehension and their role as significant in this meaning-making process.

In addition, the activity of reading had gained attainment value, the component of value that motivates an individual to participate in a task in order to increase their competence (Eccles & Wigfield, 1995). Unrau and Quirk (2014) state that motivation does not work alone; it drives action and the results of those actions become motivators in the future. As the three motivated students acted upon this inducement and read, they noticed that the activity of reading increased their knowledge. This knowledge became another motivational device, increasing their desire to read even more and this is exemplified in most of the participants reading substantially more by the end of the stage. While eleven participants reported that their motivation to read had increased, one did not. Throughout the interviews, Dani1's negative view of reading stayed consistent, "I don't like reading. I've never really liked reading" and she was unable or unwilling to articulate her reasons for this displeasure.

While the trend for students with lower abilities is to continually decrease in reading skill and interest level (McKenna et. al., 1995; National Center for Educational Statistics,

1997), the opposite was true for the participants. By the conclusion of the project, eleven participants indicated that they "enjoyed" reading and found "pleasure" in participating in the activity, with the three who had previously reported their pleasure in the activity reporting an increase in their enjoyment levels. This coincided with standardised scores of reading age equivalents of 8.0 to 14.3; with the exception of Benji3, the other eleven participants' reading age equivalents increased an average of 18 months. Although this indicates that most of the participants' scores increased, the changes, between a decrease of seven months to 31 months, varied greatly.

At the end of their sessions as a tutee, the proposed reading age levels from their running records ranged from Year 4 and two months to Year 7 and nine months, reflecting an increase of nine to forty-eight months in reading level with an average of 28.3 months. The scores from the standardised assessment and the running records are not comparable but they identify some degree of progression and suggest an increase in their abilities. Guthrie and Wigfield (2005) report that academic progression is interdependent and inseparable to motivation. The increase in their assessment scores shows that participants' attainment levels had increased which would suggest that their motivation to participate in the activity of reading had also increased. The participants' intrinsic interest had also developed, suggesting that these assessments were correct, and that this interest corresponded with increased motivations to read. However, the reasons for this correlation could be debated. According to some of their reports, this could be a reflection of their understanding their significance as a reader in this process, the attainment value of reading or their engagement with the process. Whereas, this progression could have enabled them to start focussing on more than the decoding component of reading and to begin comprehending and becoming engaged with the text, which could have acted as a source of motivation to continue reading.

5.1.2 Reading Material Preferences

Despite most participants indicating that their attitude had changed towards reading, this was often contingent on the enjoyment level that specific material held for them. While

Becky2a had originally stated her dislike of reading, her opinion had altered and she was motivated to read according to the material:

> AHW: Do you enjoy reading?
> Becky2b: Yeah, now I do.
> AHW: Do you read for pleasure or because you have to?
> Becky2b: Sometimes, if it's like a boring book and it doesn't get my attention, then I like don't want to read it. If it's like a good book, then I'll read it.

These sentiments were shared with Amy2a when she said, "I like reading like the *Hunger Games*. And I like reading good books. Not boring ones, if you know what I mean?" While Daisy2a simply stated, "I like reading books that are just interesting." According to these participants, they were willing to read books that they considered to be "good," "not boring" and "interesting." Their interest level created their motivation and as they read, their interest level promoted their intrinsic motivation to continue reading.

During the tutoring sessions of both stages, six partnerships chose books from three popular film series, *Maze Runner* (Dashner), *Divergent* (Roth) and *Diary of a Wimpy Kid* (Kinney), although four participants were unaware that a film version existed. One partnership chose books by Jacqueline Wilson, one of their favourite authors, and one partnership read short stories from *Short!: A Book of Very Short Stories* (Crossley-Holland, 1998) and *Closer* magazines for a couple of sessions before settling for a book by this same author. The choices coincide with the preferences that Cavazos-Kottke (2006) found that students make for popular fiction and books with other media versions. However, the reasons behind these choices are not clear as four participants made their selections without knowledge of the existence of a film version. Regardless of the wide variety of materials offered, their similar choices allude to their desires to assimilate with their peers. This suggests that their preferences for texts were often dictated by their desire to socially belong with their peers.

While three participants declared using the same selection process at home as at school and choosing books that had film versions, Conor3's process of selection was reversed. He chose a book that he wanted to read and watched the film to "get the hang of what it

[was] about" before reading the book itself. This could reflect upon his need for contextual cues to help bring meaning to the written texts.

Most participants made different selections between home and school. This contradicts Guthrie and Humenick's (2004) studies which found that secondary schools that permitted student autonomy to select their own material culminated in their choice to read these materials outside of the classroom. According to the initial interviews, the reading material that most selected outside of school were magazines and social media while books were chosen occasionally by five of the participants. Even though I offered a wide variety of reading material, including articles from the internet, these were all hard copies. The participants were not presented with the option of getting on to electronic devices to find reading material, such as social media. From the participants' responses and my own experiences teaching adolescents, their relationship with technology and electronics is significant.

At home, three participants chose material based on topics that they had background knowledge and found entertaining. Dani1 admitted, "This might sound really weird but I like things that have to do about murder and just to know why they would do it and that." Contrary to Hall and Coles's (1999) survey, Dani1 did not select books that she felt would adhere to social norms. However, Dani1's use of the word "weird" implies that she was aware that her enjoyment for these books was not the ordinary and she read these books privately. While this disparity could be a reflection of not being provided with their preferred material at school, the motive for many of the participants' selections was availability. For some participants, availability dictated their access to preferred material:

AHW: What do you like to read?

Conor3: *Harry Potter* books.

AHW: Do you read those at home?

Conor3: We only have one at home so I keep reading that.

AHW: You've read that a couple of times then?

Conor3: Twice.

AHW: Is that because you've seen the movie or what made you decide that you wanted to read that book?

Conor3: The movie's good but I enjoy the book more because it give you more detail.

AHW: So, do you find that generally you like books better than movies?

Conor3: Yeah.

AHW: Why is that?

Conor3: Cause I can take my time with it. In movies, it goes really fast and I can't catch up with it.

Others' preferences were established based on the reading material that they had available to them. Adam1 mainly selected material from his sister's bookcases. Aaron3 reported reading the numerous passages on his XBOX game because "we don't have many books at our house." Even Dani1, who was adamant about her aversion to reading, reported reading Jacqueline Wilson books that her grandmother had bought her when she was younger and books on murder cases that she currently made available.

In subsequent interviews, all of the participants reported reading social media at home and, with the exception of Dani1, they also stated that they read books at home. With these changes, the students' home selections began to increasingly reflect the choices that they made in school. Even though the substantial increase of book reading could indicate that reading popular literature had acted as a bridge between home and the school environment (Guthrie & Humenick, 2004; Collins & Drury, 2015), it could have related more to the books that were popular and easily accessible. Four of these participants indicated that their parents bought them several books that they requested. As many of these books had film versions, they were popular and available at most convenient stores.

Regardless of what inspired these selections, all eleven of these participants confirmed that they were reading and enjoying the books that had recently become available to them and they had plans for reading different material in the future. Even Dani1, despite her attested aversion to reading, proposed plans for reading "her nan's books" over the holiday.

The enjoyment levels and preferences for different types of reading material are intrinsic factors and the degree of their existence either assisted or deterred an individual from reading. Based on the participants' reports, these factors varied by individual but many commonalities existed within the group. Although many stated their dislike of reading at the beginning, this shifted for most by the end, indicating the correlation of attitude to the level of attainment (PIRLS, 2006). Additionally, reading material availability held a critical role in their ability to initiate the activity. This follows Edwards (2007) suggestion that parents still play an important role in their child's literacy development by making reading material available to them. However, by only providing them with the opportunities to read after being prompted by their children, the parent's role was more as a facilitator rather than a disciplinarian when it came to their child's involvement with reading.

5.1.3 The Influence of Others

While parents or other family members usually made reading material available, this was generally under the direction of the participants. Nine participants announced that they only read when it was self-initiated and their parents never attempted to have them read. This lack of involvement is somewhat reflected in the minimal studies conducted about the parental role in their older children's literacy development (Hall & Coles, 1999; Klauda, 2009; National Literacy Trust, 2010) and these studies disagree regarding the most effective ways for parents to be involved.

Some parents provided books to their children, which were intrinsically motivating, and three participants stated that their parents occasionally motivated them through extrinsic factors, such as punishment or rewards. One parent made their child read daily, "I read every day because I have to read to my sister." Two other parents requested that their

children read occasionally. Becky2a stated, "My mum asks me sometimes to do it. Most of the time I do it." Regardless of whether the participants' family members utilised intrinsic or extrinsic means, they were successful in encouraging the participants to read when they made the attempt. For Benji3, this was somewhat more frequent:

> Benji3: For homework, I would read quite a lot. If it's to revise for a test, then I would read, my mum would make me read. Because it's very important for her that I do read.
> AHW: So you say that it's important for her that you read, how do you know that?
> Benji3: Because she didn't really do well with reading, so she just wants me to do a bit better.
> AHW: So does she make you read every night?
> Benji3: In the summer, she makes me read quite often.

Even though some participants attempted to motivate their children to read, only Benji3 mentioned that his mother found reading as valuable. The value that Benji3's mother associated with reading also provided an example to her son. Similarly, Adam1's sister read frequently and owned numerous books and acted a role model to her brother.

As demonstrated by the list in Chapter 2 about the ways parents influence their child's reading habits, parents' even seemingly unremarkable actions can act as motivations to their children (Edwards, 2007). However, parents could have the opposite effect by not performing these seemingly insignificant acts. Dani1's mother was unable to provide her with an atmosphere conducive to reading and she did not read frequently at home. Despite professing her dislike for reading, she reported reading various books in her grandmother's quiet home, suggesting the importance of a quiet reading space.

5.1.4 Perceived Value of Reading

When an individual encounters any task, they assign it a task value and this value determines the individual's efforts in regards to the task. As discussed in Chapter 2, the individual assigns value to the task according to its attainment value, intrinsic interest, utility value and its cost belief (Eccles & Wigfield, 1995). According to Schunk and

colleagues (2013), society often dictates which tasks are valuable and worthy of an individual's time and efforts, which influences their behavior. As the school requires every teacher to assign homework on a termly basis, its completion would seem a likely source of value. Only three participants indicated that their homework required reading at home. "I've been reading a bit more but I've been revising. So I'm reading loads of books to revise," stated Chloe1. During the observations, the participants discussed homework or revising for their exams occasionally but only in brief statements between two tutors that shared the same English class. The limited remarks given about homework throughout the study indicated that many of the participants did not consider completing homework as a type of reading or they did not value it.

Only two participants discussed the value of reading in their initial interview. When asked regarding the reasons that she found reading pleasing, Dawn3 indicated that reading was valuable in its ability to relax her in preparation for bed. She elaborated upon its value, "Because I know that it makes me really tired. If I don't, I'm up until like twelve. It relaxes me. If I'm having a really stressful day, then I read and it calms me down a bit." When Becky2a was questioned about her reasons for enjoying reading, she stated, "I know that it will help me." Upon further queries into what she felt it would help her with, she responded, "Just my future, reading and stuff." In an interview as a tutor, Becky2b specified, "Cause I want to be like work in a beauty salon." She explained, "I was like thinking of giving these slips out and saying what they think about it and ideas and I have to be able to read and see what they say." Although her initial response indicated that she assigned a degree of value to the task of reading, her very specific response at the end demonstrates that this conception of value grew to include the value components of attainment and utility. According to Eccles and Wigfield's (1995) work on task value, the presence of these three components suggests that Becky2b valued the task more and was more likely to increase her efforts.

During their second interview, two other participants expressed that they found reading important. It held attainment value for them as it increased their reading skills and was already enriching their lives. When questioned about her motives for reading, Amy2b responded, "Because I know that it will get me better… because you're practising and

getting used to different words." Adam1 declared his motives for wanting to read more were to, "just get more confident and get better at reading."

Similarly, Daisy2a suggested that reading held greater significance and utility value to older students, "Cause if you want to get a really good job when you're older, then you need to know how to read." As this phrase is a truism, Daisy2a could have been expressing others' sentiments rather than her own. In a later interview she stated the purpose of the sessions, "So you could get better, like better in life." Upon asking open-ended questions to elicit clarification, Daisy2b only added, "It could help them as they got older." Although her words indicate her belief that reading was significant to her future, her ambiguity demonstrates uncertainty as to how they would prove beneficial in her future.

Durik and her colleagues (2006) propose that task value helps to determine an individual's choices, persistence and performance levels. However, their study highlights that these values remain consistent and that the task value assigned by a student in Year 4 is predictive of their choices and task value in Year 10; this was not the case for majority of the participants. By their final interview, seven participants (Amy2b, Becky2b, Codey2b, Daisy2b, Aaron3, Benji3 and Conor3) assigned greater task value to reading than they had previously. In accordance with these increased levels of value, they made choices and attempted to increase their performance levels. When Benji3 was asked about his reasons for reading more frequently, he declared, "Well, I don't really read. I just looked at the book and the pictures but now I just think that I want to read a book because I know that I need to improve." Another participant found constant practice was necessary because without it your skills could quickly regress.

AHW: Do you feel like reading is important?

Amy2b: It is important.

AHW: Why would you say that?

Amy2b: Because say that you didn't read for a year or two years, then you picked a book, even if you didn't pick up a book after six months, it would be harder to read.

AHW: Do you think that it's important for your life?

Amy2b: Yeah, for most jobs, you need to be able to read and spell. They both come together.

AHW: How would you say that they come together?

Amy2b: I don't know like with spelling you have to be able to decode the word and that could be like linking into your reading.

In other cases, they were already experiencing the importance and utility value that reading held for their lives. "Like I had a dent in this car, and I read about it. I read that you pour boiling hot water and push out from the other side and it came out," recounted Codey2b. For others, they viewed the utility value that reading held for their futures. Ten participants described that the skill was necessary for their future. Codey2b stated, "Because I want to be a mechanic, you have to read up on all of the parts and where you put them on the car." This statement closely resembles the reading habits of two adolescent males from Smith and Wilhelm's (2002) study who were enthusiastic to read "to solve a problem, especially if it related to making or building cars" (p. 105).

When reading provided a means of resolving issues and culminated in a useful "visible product," many of the other study's participants were eager to read (Smith & Wilhelm, 2002, p. 105). This tendency was shared by two of the male tutees as they considered their relationship with reading in the future. Aaron3 stated reading's future function, "Because if you have to sign a document or something then you have to read it first." Conor3 said, "Say you was an athlete, you would have to read questions but if you couldn't read then you wouldn't be able to because you couldn't read the question." Interestingly, the male participants stated their willingness to read when they attached it to something more physical, such as sports, a car or a document. Even though the female participants could have shared these sentiments, only Becky2b stated her desire to utilise

her reading skills to make and obtain questionnaires for her future hair salon. Most participants implied that reading held a high degree of attainment or utility value to their lives and the participants also expressed the enjoyment that reading provided them.

In contrast, the cost belief that they assigned to reading was relatively low. When participants had leisure time, their decision as to how to spend this time signified the cost belief that they held for reading and five participants reported it as an activity that they only participated in as a last resort. Daisy2b reported, "I read on Wednesdays when I come home from school cause there's nothing to do" and Becky2a shared these sentiments, "If I'm like I'm bored or something, then I just read."

When Benji3 was asked about his reading habits, his response revealed the cost belief that he assigned to reading:

> Benji3: Sometimes during the weekend when I don't have anything else to do.
> AHW: So reading isn't your first choice for things to do?
> Benji3: No, I just get on the internet mostly.
> AHW: And you do that on the weekend when you don't have anything else?
> Benji3: (Nods.)
> AHW: How often would you say that is?
> Benji3: Once in two weeks.
> AHW: And do you read for a long time when you do that?
> Benji3: It depends on what's coming up or what we're doing. If I have friends coming round, then I'd read until they were here. Or when there's nothing on TV.

Unlike the other concepts from which value is assigned, the participants did not propose that their cost belief had changed by the end of the process except for in two cases. Beth1 stated, "Sometimes if I don't have anything to do in the day, I'd just get a book out," where previously she would have "just gone out." This symbolises that her reading's cost belief has increased to some degree. While Codey2b explained the times that he decided to read, "Um, cause like if the power goes, then I'm like I can't do anything. So I get my book off my phone, and I start reading." Although his cost belief

was low, it had increased as before he would "probably gone outside and done something else."

The participants' responses implied that cost beliefs were low in comparison to the other components of value and that they had not changed to the same degree. Even though the value and interest that participants had for reading increased, this degree still did not outweigh the value that other leisure activities held for them.

5.2 Reading Engagement

Although an individual's motivation is important, it is the driving force that leads to the ultimate goal of engagement. In the coding process, two subthemes emerged—strategies and reading time. Engagement is the reader's cognitive, emotional and social involvement with the text and is observable through the cognitive strategies that the reader utilises to understand the text, their literary interactions with others (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000) and the amount of text that they read. This section is organised into these two subthemes.

5.2.1 Reading Strategies

Upon my first inquiries regarding their ability to read their English class novel, three participants indicated that they needed to incorporate strategies to assist their reading. According to Pressley and Allington (2014), the utilisation of strategies is indicative of a good reader. By knowing that strategies are necessary, the participants' behaviour is indicative that comprehension monitoring is occurring. Kinnunen et. al. (1998) define this process as the metacognitive regulation that the participant is constructing valid meanings from the text. Therefore, the employment of strategies indicates that the individual utilising them is comprehending and engaged with the text. Two participants stated their need to read the passages either silently or aloud to increase their comprehension of the passage. For Aaron3, he incorporated the strategy of reading aloud. Otherwise, "I start daydreaming when I try to read in my head." Therefore, this strategy potentially enabled him to ponder about the text rather than just scan words.

Dani1 also employed this technique but a specific environment was also required for her to be engaged with the text; she preferred reading "at school because it's more quiet. If I read out loud, then I understand it more than if I just read it in my head." While Conor3 found that he needed to do the opposite, "It goes all mumbly when I read it out loud. But in my head, it's all clear and that."

Whereas, Adam1, who has a hearing impairment, found that he needed to compensate and his means of doing this was to "sometimes [I] buy the book and listen to the audible version so I know how to say the word." Although this is a strategy, its ability to assist him in his understanding of the book could be debateable. Thus, the use of these audio book versions does not necessarily signify his comprehension of these texts.

By their final interview, only two participants reported strategies that they utilised to enhance their engagement level with the text. When I attempted to understand Dani1's dislike of reading, she stated, "I just think that it's just that I find it hard to understand books [that] I read in my head… It's so loud in my house so I just read in my head." If her home was quieter, like her grandmother's home, she suggested that she would read more frequently. One of these participants reported utilising different strategies when encountering an unfamiliar word. Amy2a informed me that, "If I don't know a word, then I can decode it or use different ways to find out the word."

While their self-reports did not suggest that many of the participants employed different strategies to engage with the texts during the sessions, their observations and running records suggested that this was not the case. During each observation and most running records, the participants made frequent attempts to decode words when they made an error; these attempts ranged from one to four per minute. The participants often reread phrases to assist in their comprehension when confusion occurred or they asked each other about the meaning of different words. In addition, each partnership discussed their text at least once during each reading session. Generally, these were simple discussions about the storyline or characters in their material or they made inferences about the next day's reading. This was exemplified in one of Adam1 and Amy2a's sessions where they summarised the actions in a book from the *Maze Runner* series:

Adam1: What do you thinks happened so far?

Amy2a: Um, they've woke up and they've got all the stuff and that on their backs. So I think that Newt might be killed by Group B but I think that they might all get killed in the end.

At times, transactions between participants became a bit more complex as they analysed the writer's purpose. When Amy2b became the tutor, her transactions were much more complex than when she was a tutee.

Amy2b: Okay, before we carry on. Why do you think that's in capitals?

Aaron3: (Looks at her.)

Amy2b: So, if I like write WOW in capitals, what do you think that I could mean by that?

Aaron3: Like you're amazed about something?

Amy2b: Yeah. So when he says, "I knew exactly where THAT idea came from…?"

Aaron3: Because he knew what it was?

Amy2b: So like he knew where it came from.

At the beginning of the stage, the partnerships did not seem to utilise strategies to aid in their comprehension of the texts. By the end of the stage, there were no noticeable differences in their use of strategies. Therefore, there is not an indication that their engagement with the reading material increased over time. The employment of these strategies does illustrate that the participants were cognitively and socially engaged with the text at least to some degree.

5.2.2 Time Spent Reading

Upon asking the participants about their reading habits, all twelve reported that they did read but this ranged in frequency. Five of the participants stated that they read daily. Although two of these participants' parents required them to read to their siblings, only one of these had to do this on a daily basis. Daisy2 said, "I read every day because I have

to read to my sister." While Aaron3 had to read to understand the game that he played daily:

AHW: Do you read at home?
Aaron3: Sometimes.
AHW: How often would you say?
Aaron3: About ten minutes a day.
AHW: Do you do that because you like it?
Aaron3: Because I play on the X-Box and you have to read some of it.

Two of the participants read for longer periods of time. "I'm reading *Woman in Black* at the moment but I read every night for like half an hour before I go to bed," declared Dawn3. As I attempted to clarify Adam1's reading habits, he stated:

AHW: How often do you read?
Adam1: Once a month.
AHW: How long do you read when you read once a month?
Adam1: A couple of pages.
AHW: Okay, so you get a new book once a month and you read a couple of pages?
Adam1: Or… I borrow one from my sister or something. She's got like two bookcases full.
AHW: Okay, so once a month you'll decide to sit down and start reading or is it once a month that you'll get a new book?
Adam1: I read over the month. Then, I'll get a new book each month.
AHW: Oh okay, and how long would you say that you read every day?
Adam1: About half an hour.

Out of these five participants, three were motivated by extrinsic factors, such as their parents' influence or for the end result of understanding their game, and they expressed a dislike of the action. Whereas, Dawn3 and Adam1, who said that they read for the longest amount of time, indicated that they were reading due to the pleasure that they received from the actual process.

Even though the other participant who declared his enjoyment for reading in the initial interview read less frequently than the other two, he also read for a much longer amount of time than those who reported a dislike for reading.

AHW: How often would you say that you read at home?
Conor3: Quite often.
AHW: Do you read every night?
Conor3: Not every night.
AHW: How many times a week would you say?
Conor3: Three times a week.
AHW: About how long do you read when you read?
Conor3: Until my mum comes up and says that I have to go to sleep.
AHW: Would you say that's usually five minutes, ten minutes, thirty minutes, and hour..?
Conor3: About an hour.

Six participants read somewhat less frequently. "At home, I read once a week," Amy2a said, "for like ten minutes." Most of these reports were somewhat ambiguous. Beth1 supposed, "I start reading a book every couple of months, I guess." When asked regarding reading other materials, such as magazines, she stated, "Once a week, I'll have a look at one." Chloe1 related that "a couple of times a fortnight" she would read "for about half an hour." Dani1's reading was the less frequent at "once a month, sometimes." Not surprisingly, none of these participants associated pleasure with reading, showing an absence of any intrinsic motivation, and they did not reveal any external factors that compelled them to read. The short periods spent reading also imply that they were not engaged with their reading material. In comparison, the three that accredited reading with pleasure read for longer amounts of time. This not only indicates that they were intrinsically motivated to read and continue reading but it also suggests that there was some type of connection between them and their text. They were engaged.

In their next interview, some of the participants indicated that their reading habits had changed to some degree. Previously, Aaron3 was extrinsically motivated to read in order

to play his XBOX game. In his mid-interview, he affirmed his like for reading and that he had begun to read comics and *Diary of a Wimpy Kid* (Kinney) graphic novels, once a week for fifteen minutes. Although this is not a large amount of time, it represents the intrinsic motivation that reading had begun to be for him. In Ujiie and Krashen's (1996) study, they discovered that reading comics has ability to facilitate "heavier reading" (p. 54) for individuals with average or high-attaining skills. In contrast, Krashen (2004) and Crawford (2004) deem "light" reading, such as comics, magazines and graphic novels as an "invaluable tool for motivating reluctant readers" (p. 26). Serantes (2016) also declares the benefits of the adaptability of texts, such as comics, to the time constraints and argues about its intellectual depth. This adaptability permitted Aaron3 to find material to fit into the time that he was willing to dedicate to reading.

When Beth1, who had looked at popular culture magazines such as *Hello!* and *Closer* weekly and disliked reading, was asked about the frequency of her reading, she stated she was now reading books "probably like, every night before I go to bed. I find it relaxing." This implies that her relationship with reading, especially books, had changed to something favourable. Its ability to relax her before she went to bed could suggest that the end result of helping her to go to sleep was her extrinsic motivation. Her use of the word "relaxing" suggests that she became cognitively involved with her text and it was not something that she found mentally taxing.

During these middle interviews, a few participants reported reading more than they had previously but the times that they gave were less than those that they had given when they professedly read less. I would not suppose that the discrepancies in these reports were purposefully fabricated by the students. With something that is difficult to quantify like reading, the amounts given should be considered tentatively. Additionally, the initial confusion during Adam1's interview illustrates some issues that can arise with self-report, making another means of verification invaluable. While the correlation of both observations and self-reports assisted greatly in determining the reliability of self-reports, they also provided insight into what the participants counted as reading. Beth1 only reported reading books but this conflicted with earlier observations of her discussing reading magazines frequently with her partner. This omission could have been her

absent-mindedness or a manifestation that she did not regard reading magazines as a proper form of literature.

In their final interviews, the three participants, who were initially intrinsically motivated, stayed fairly consistent with their reading although Conor3's frequency increased. "Like last time I used to read probably three days a week. Now I read five days a week." Seven participants reported quite significant alterations in their reading habits. In my observations, Beth1 discussed reading from the *Harry Potter* (Rowling) series and I asked her about this experience.

> Beth1: Yeah, I liked it but I think that I'll go to something different this time. I've read one and them and they're really long. I stayed up for ages just to keep reading. (Both laugh.)
> AHW: So you've been reading before bed? For how long?
> Beth1: Ten to twenty minutes. Other times it would be like for an hour.
> AHW: I'm surprised that you've already finished it.
> Beth1: Yeah, sometimes if I don't have anything to do in the day, I'd just get a book out.

The book was an intrinsic motivation to her and she found time throughout the day to continue reading. The large amounts of time that she spent indicate that she was engaged with the book. It also shows that it held a high cost belief to her. Although she had completed the book, she insinuated that she desired to replicate this experience by getting other books. Her relationship with reading had changed dramatically from looking at a magazine to becoming engaged with a book for an hour.

Similarly, Benji3 described enjoyable experiences that he had reading, "Yeah, if I get into a book, I want to read more. But if it's like I'm reading in my bed, when I shouldn't do and my phone is running out of battery because I use the torch on my phone so my mum doesn't notice." When questioned regarding the frequency of these occurrences, he stated, "Probably like two to three days a week."

Aaron3 read books "four times a week for about an hour" because he liked it, depicting the high intrinsic motivation that reading now had for him. These higher interactions

with text occurred for both Amy2b and Daisy2b. In Daisy2b's case, she reported reading more in her final interview because "when I was in Year 7, I would read for like ten minutes and then I'd get bored of the book." Both indicated that reading now held an interest for them. The larger amounts of time read and Daisy2b's implications as to it no longer being a "boring" task intimated that they were interacting with the text; they were engaged.

Two of the participants did not substantiate any significant changes to their reading habits. Becky2b's reading habits did not change much because "after about a half an hour my eyes go weird on me." Although her frequency did not change, her motivations for reading did change. Previously, she read mainly due to extrinsic motivational factors. These external factors had been replaced by her internal desires and the enjoyment that she experienced when reading. Even Dani1 had begun to "read now and then but on Facebook and to read just what's happened on the news" or magazines that her grandmother had purchased.

In all of these reports, there is an indication that the participants were engaging with the text. Their experiences reveal cognitive or emotional connections with a text. However, in a few cases, these interactions were motivated by external factors. By the final interviews, ten participants' interest influenced their reading and acted as their intrinsic motivation. This interest was also observed during the sessions as they discussed the literature that they were reading at home with the other participants.

As discussed in Chapter 2, on-task behaviour is an indication that a reader is engaged with the text (Reschly & Christenson, 2012; Tobin, 1984). When an individual is not motivated intrinsically, their off-task behaviour leads to a cessation of reading and indicated by the small amount of time that they read. As this occurs outside of the classroom, this information was obtained through self-reports and confirmed by the occasional conversations that they had with others about their outside reading. In the classroom, a student's reading is generally in response to extrinsic factors, such as avoiding punishment by their teacher for not focussing on their work or completing their assignment. As this off-task behaviour is linked to punishment, students tended not report on their own negative behaviour in this area. Therefore, observations of their

behaviour in the classroom offered the best means of discerning this behaviour. Interestingly, their partners exposed a couple of participants and their occasional unengaged behaviour.

During the audio recordings, Amy2a and Adam1 discussed something outside of their reading twice which lasted less than fifteen seconds and these were in response to Becky2a's questions. This conduct was mirrored Amy2b's observations with Aaron3. This on-task behaviour was also witnessed by myself and verified in my field notes. Although the audio recordings of both of Becky2's partnerships reflected the same on-task behaviour, my field notes indicated that on frequent occasions Becky2 called out to Amy2 during the sessions. These off-task episodes only lasted from between a few seconds to under a minute. They were also recognised by Benji3 who informed me that "Becky can keep talking to [Amy2b] and telling her these stories while she's marking." This designates that Becky2b's off-task behaviour occurred while she was marking Benji3's responses to the session's recoding section previous to reading the text. Therefore, her behaviour indicated her tendency to want to talk when she was able to participate in both actions simultaneously. When she was reading the text, she was generally on-task and involved with the reading process.

In both partnerships of Codey2 and Daisy2, their behaviour was similar to each other. In their audio recorded sessions, they were constantly on-task although my anecdotal observations indicated that this account did not represent the whole story. They both came to the sessions early and began conversing with everyone in the room. When it was time for the session to begin, it took them a while to settle down and initiate the decoding session. During the decoding session, they were on-task but they began to converse immediately between the transition from decoding to reading their text. Again, it took a couple of minutes for them to commence reading the text. Chloe1 remained on-task until the end of the session while Codey2a left his seat during the sessions for various reasons on an average of two times per session. Chloe1 reported on these episodes and she proposed, "He might have been bored." While their desire to converse with one another suggests that possibly their cost belief of reading was low in comparison to their desire to chat. When they began the activity, Daisy2a became engaged with the process and this motivated her to carry on. In contrast, Codey2a's desire to stand up on numerous

occasions during the sessions implies that he found the work laborious at times and that he was less engaged than the other participants. At the same time, he did spend the majority of the time on-task suggesting that he was engaged with the reading process to some extent, which was also evident in his ability to discuss the book during observations.

When the quantitative scores are evaluated against the qualitative results, the high-degree of fluctuation can be better understood along with the relationship between attainment and motivation. While Benji3, whose standardised score decreased over the stage, indicated that he enjoyed reading, he would never declare how long he participated in the activity and only stated that his frequency was two to three times weekly. In addition, Dani1, whose SRS2 score increased by eight months, reported reading occasionally. When comparing the SRS2 age equivalent scores from their pre- and post-tests on Table 4, the participants who reported reading daily or for more than two hours on a weekly basis to those who did not, the former group's average score is an 18 month increase in comparison to the latter group's 4.5 months. The PIRLS study (2006) found that recreational reading and ability correlate on a significant level. Even though the participants who reported shorter and infrequent recreational reading sessions tended to have lower scores than their peers who read often, this was not always the case. Beth1 stated that she generally read daily for over thirty minutes but her standardised score only increased three points. This suggests that, despite their correlation, the amount of time spent reading recreationally is not a precise measurement of ability.

5.3 Reflections on 'The Reading'

As the participants were questioned regarding their ability to read a specific text from their English class curriculum, their responses revealed the relationship that they had with the reading phenomenon in general. The participants' relationship with reading became increasingly positive as their skills and interest levels intensified during the study. In order to determine whether this trend would continue, the motivation behind this increase became significant.

Although intrinsic motivation correlates with attainment and the number of self-initiated reading experiences (Wang & Guthrie, 2004), extrinsic motivation does not. McCardle et. al. (2008) declare that intrinsic motivation generally decreases as an individual reaches the upper primary and secondary grades, whereas extrinsic motivation increases as the school's focus turns to achievement on exams and class marks. However, the opposite occurred for the participants in my study. As motivating individuals through extrinsic factors teaches that reading in itself is not motivational or rewarding, this tendency has been found to be detrimental. On their initial interview, five participants indicated that they read due to extrinsic factors, such as homework, parental requests or the end result of understanding a game. In this first interview, none of these students attested to enjoying the reading process or to self-initiating any reading experiences. This suggests that extrinsic motivation does not evolve into a students' view of reading as something to enjoy, or at least it had not for these participants.

Contrastingly, the three participants, who initially affirmed that they found the reading process enjoyable, never mentioned any external factors as motivational. They read due to the pleasure that the experience gave them and these experiences were self-initiated and more frequent than their peers. By the final interview, eleven of the participants had confirmed that they enjoyed reading and it was this interest that had motivated them to self-initiate reading experiences on a regular basis. Only one also mentioned that the external factor of revising for their exam was a motivation for them to read at times. As all of the extrinsically motivated participants became motivated by intrinsic factors by the end of the session, there was no apparent change to motivational devices in this manner. If individuals, who were now intrinsically motivated, were offered extrinsic rewards for their reading, then this could possibly create problems for them to revert back to being motivated solely by their interest level. However, they do indicate that intrinsically motivated individuals self-initiate reading experiences unlike extrinsically motivated individuals.

Generally, extrinsic motivation increases in the upper years but a student's autonomy in selecting material decreases (Hafen, et. al., 2012). Students are required to read books in which they have little or no interest and teachers attempt to extrinsically motivate their pupils to read these books through the assignments and exams that they present alongside

the material. As extrinsic motivation does not lead to a student enjoying reading or self-initiating reading experiences at home, their relationship with reading will not change. Although Guthrie and Humenick's (2004) report on the importance for secondary teachers to offer students autonomy to select material in which they are interested, the ability to offer these selections can be difficult. Some of this difficulty can be attributed to the diminishing topics that McKenna (1986) found that secondary students label as interesting. As the participants enjoyed social media and electronic texts and I did not offer these as options, the students' reading selections were different between home and school in contrast to Guthrie and Humenick's (2004) reports. However, the participants' responses suggested that this might have been a case of not having similar texts at home to those that they had at school. Throughout the study, the participants' requests to parents made such texts available to them and culminated in many participants reading similar books by the end of each stage. Therefore, Guthrie and Humenick's (2004) declarations regarding autonomy in the book selection process equating to the students reading similar texts at home and reading more frequently was eventually realised, or at least in part.

An additional cause for discrepancy could relate to the inclusion of peers in the school environment, which also introduced the need to adhere to social norms. During their sessions, the participants selected books from two different series despite there being numerous options; this suggests that the participants chose what they thought was socially acceptable (Hall & Coles, 1999; McKenna, 1986). Although these books were often times at least a year above the reading levels indicated by their running records, they were not deterred. In their running records, most of the participants had numerous errors. They were intrinsically motivated to carry on reading during the sessions as evidenced by their on-task behaviour. The participants' errors decreased substantially over the stage and the reading levels proposed by their informal assessments increased. On their initial interview, only five participants read books occasionally. By their final interview, eleven participants reported reading books from popular literature at least a few times a week, indicating the bridge that popular literature can create between home and school. However, their desires to read the material could have related to their

increasing levels of attainment and perceptions of efficacy in successfully reading these texts or to their ability to assimilate with peers.

In addition to motivation, the persistence and performance level that an individual decides to give to a task is also determined by the value that they assign to it (Durik, et. al., 2006). According to the socio-cultural perspective, society and the individuals within it provide context and help the individual to create conceptions of value (Schunk et. al., 2013). As only two participants discussed the value that reading held in their lives, this could suggest that reading was not seen as valuable within their society. Of course, the idea of society is ambiguous, it could represent their group of friends, their English class, their school year, the school, people their age or society as a whole. As the notion of value is first conceptualised in their home before a student even starts school, this suggests that reading was not valued in their home or was not conceived to be valued by the individual. Although these are only conjectures, the lack of literature in the home of two of the participants, along with parents only requiring their children to read in three households denotes that they were not involved to the extent proposed by research (Clark, 2011; Edwards, 2007; Evans, et. al., 2010; Hall & Coles, 1999). The extrinsic motivation provided for the three participants did not evolve into their obtaining a positive attitude towards reading, which implies that this kind of involvement is not always helpful. In contrast, the parent's positive role as a facilitator in making books available, especially those that their child selected, resulted in those participants reading and enjoying these selections. Perhaps the significance of their role became more apparent when they failed to provide reading materials or create an atmosphere conducive to reading. Unlike the other participants, Dani1 was not provided with an area to read in her home and she was the sole participant who stated her dislike for reading. However, at her grandmother's quiet home, she was intrinsically motivated to read the materials that were made available to her. Unfortunately, the lack of research conducted on parental involvement with older student's reading suggests that society does not sufficiently promote the value of a parent's role as valuable when their children become older.

While their conceptions of value were not something that they discussed or possibly thought about beforehand, the increased reports proposed that this changed during the

stage. For several, an increase in their abilities and reading level brought recognition to the skills that made this possible. When they associated these skills with reading improvement, this generated the concept that both the skills and the practice of these skills were valuable; the reading process had attainment value and they saw themselves having some control over their reading skills. This newly-acquired attainment value motivated them to exercise autonomy and create goals to further increase their skills, implying a sense of self-efficacy (Pajares, 2008).

Although two participants initially reported the utility value that reading held for their future, these participants were vague as the role that it would have. Over the sessions, these reports became very specific, demonstrating the clear and definite function that reading had and would have in their lives. Many others gained a conception of its utility value for their future and stated that it was necessary for their success. As students read more due to their conception of its utility value to their future, they noticed functions that it had in their current lives, such as a means to calm or obtain information, and these became other sources of utility value to the individual. This exemplifies the reciprocal relationship between the reading process and the conception of value.

Another element of value, cost belief, did not change substantially during the sessions. When a participant had time free to participate in leisure activities, reading was low on the list and was often considered as a last resort according to most participants. Upon surveying the amount of time that students reported reading and weighing it against these statements, these reports seem to contradict one another. There could be numerous reasons for these contradictions, such as reporting what they thought I wanted to hear in either case or a disparity between our definitions of leisure time.

An additional indication that cost belief was low is exemplified in the availability of reading material. Only one participant alluded to going to the library to gain access to reading material. While many of the student's parents purchased books that they desired to read, two participants indicated that availability of reading material was an issue for them. When books were made available to them, their intrinsic interest motivated them to read the books. This also suggests that their cost belief was not high enough to counteract the inconvenience of obtaining the books on their own.

Along with higher abilities, increased time spent reading recreationally would also logically correlate with the participant selecting more reading materials. Guthrie, McGough, Bennett and Rice (1996) found that the book selection process itself affirmed that an individual was motivated to read and had confidence in their ability to understand their selection; both attributes attested to the individual's positive self-perceptions and their sense of self-efficacy. According to the observations, all of the participants were able to read their chosen text with graduating success during the sessions and the interdependent relationship between attainment and motivation lead to increases in both. As most of the participants were motivated to read their selection, they practised and increased their skills. An increase in their attainment levels lead to even more confidence in their skills and higher perceptions of themselves and their self-efficacy to read another selection, along with their motivation to read the selected text. Although this process was not witnessed directly, its existence could be inferred by the participants' reports of the increased amount of time and number of texts that they spent reading recreationally, along with the gradual progression of their informal assessments and their standardised scores. The variation in scores and reports signifies that this cycle occurred at different levels for the different participants.

In Amy2a's situation, she initially stated her dislike for reading and that she only read weekly for around ten minutes. Her standardised score was 75 and she was reading at a standard assumed for those who had been in Year 2 for nine months. She was generally on-task in the sessions. By the middle of the stage, she stated that she enjoyed reading more and that she read a few times during the week and planned on reading over the summer holiday. According to her running records, she was reading at a standard attributed to individuals who had been in Year 4 for two months. By the final interview, she attested to the pleasure that she associated with reading and she read daily for thirty minutes. In addition, her standardised score had increased to 92 and she discussed her desire to read numerous different books.

In comparison, Codey2a initially stated his dislike for reading but indicated that he read occasionally. His standardised score was 74 and his reading level according to the informal assessments was at a standard assumed by students beginning Year 4. During the sessions, he would often find opportunities to get out of his seat and stop working.

By the middle of the stage, he enjoyed reading more and his reading level was that attributed to a student in Year 4 and nine months according to the informal assessments. By the final interview, he confirmed that he enjoyed reading but he still only read a few times a week. His standardised score had risen to 80 but he did not discuss reading books that often at home. In both of these situations, there are similarities between their interest, attainment levels, the frequency of their recreational reading and their book selections, which would suggest that their perceptions of themselves and the efficacy at which they felt they could read a book increased but to varying degrees.

At the beginning of the sessions, all of the participants, except for Adam1, Conor3 and Dawn3, revealed that they held negative feelings towards the reading process. As the participants' experiences with this process increased and they were given more autonomy, they began to associate concepts of value and interest to reading, which motivated them to self-initiate further experiences. These experiences increased their attainment levels and their intrinsic motivation and provided them with positive associations with the reading process. In return, these positive associations increased their confidence and their perceptions of their skills that enabled them to select reading materials with the self-efficacy that they would be able to read them. These self-initiated experiences increased their interest, abilities and motivations and their perceptions of themselves as readers with the self-efficacy to be able to read other books. Although this cyclical relationship occurred to varying degrees, the increased scores on both informal and standardised assessments along with the higher reports of interest and reading amount support that it did occur for eleven of the participants. Even though Dani1 still retained her negative attitude towards reading, her increased assessment scores and increased reading amounts suggest that this cycle, at a slower pace, had also begun in her case.

Chapter 6- The Readers

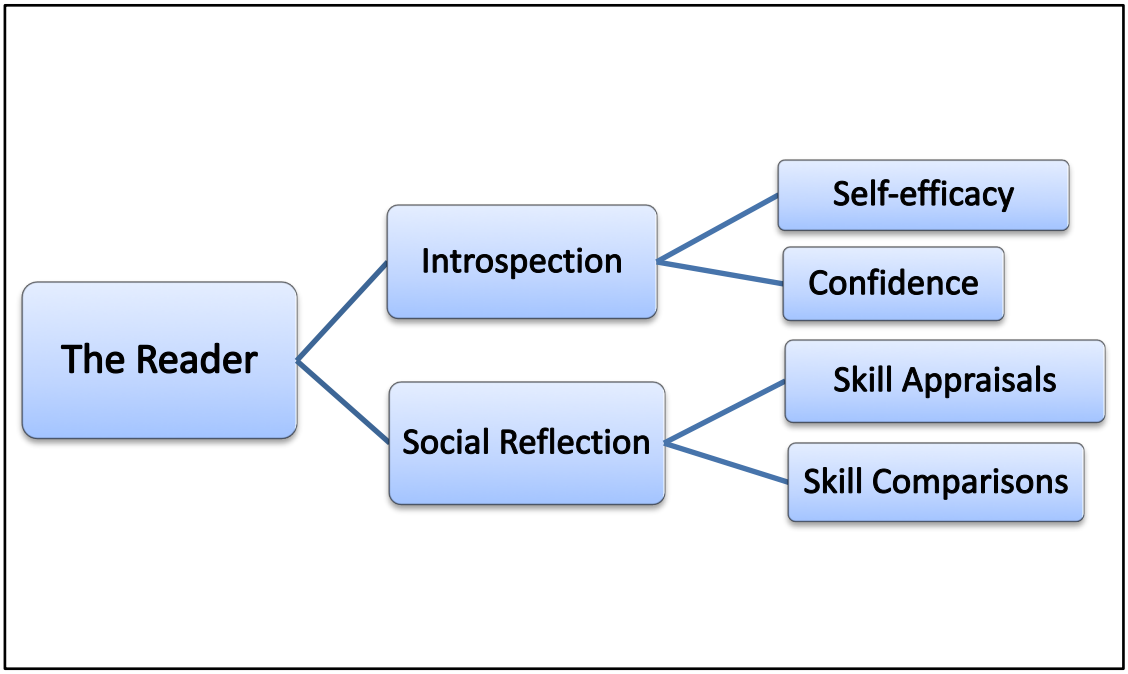


Diagram 4- The Readers

Encompassing this chapter are the participants' perceptions of themselves as readers. As an individual's self-beliefs are based on their perceptions of themselves and the world around them, they are intangible and must be determined through their words and actions. Therefore, their responses to an open-ended interview were analysed according to the process previously mentioned. During this process, themes emerged regarding their notions of themselves based on their introspections and social reflections. These themes align themselves with the work of Turner (1999) regarding self-concept. When an individual is composing their reader self-concept, they make these intrapersonal and interpersonal comparisons with regard to their reading skills. The results culminate in their reader self-concept. In order to understand the participants' perceptions of themselves, this chapter is organised into two sections based on these introspections and social reflections, which are then broken down into the subthemes. Following these sections, there is an additional section to subsequently synthesise this information.

6.1 Introspections on themselves as Readers

On the participants' initial interview, they were asked about their ability to read a book from the subsequent term's English curriculum. Their initial responses pertained to themselves and the confidence that they had of their reading skills. Afterwards, other open-ended questions were posed to encourage the participants to divulge their abstract and complex thoughts about reading, which exposed whether their feelings only applied to the specific atmosphere. These additional questions also assisted in ensuring that I was obtaining the true intention of their words. When analysed, the responses within this theme were further classified into the subthemes of self-efficacy and confidence. As their self-efficaciousness became more generalised, they became more confident in their abilities and themselves as readers. The participant's words were also triangulated with the results from their assessments and their actions witnessed in observations.

6.1.1 Reports of Self-Efficacy

When asked, "How well do you feel that you could read this book?" in their initial responses, all four tutors confirmed their abilities in statements such as "quite well," "okay" and "yeah" after looking at the material for one to three seconds. Chloe1, on the other hand, initially stated that she could read the text but later declared a few issues that could arise if the strategies that she employed failed to assist her. "Fine, I think. I might struggle with a few words that I can't sound out." According to Brown (1998), a belief that an individual can overcome the obstacles that they encounter when completing a task is attributed to the individual's level of self-efficacy pertaining to that task. Although Chloe1 indicated that she would "struggle," the strategy that she mentioned indicates that she felt that she could overcome any obstacles to some degree and her willingness to try despite possible challenges is indicative of a "growth mindset" (Dweck, 2017). It also denotes her view of reading as "sounding out." The four tutors demonstrated that they held some beliefs in their own reader self-efficacy. This could suggest that they had experienced some success with reading passages such as these in the past or it could be

reflective of the invitation to become reading tutors which could have increased their positivity in their skills as they were found as sufficient to assist another individual.

In contrast, two tutees and two members of the core group attested to the difficulties that it would pose to them due to specific qualities of the text. Daisy2a stated, "It could be quite tricky. The words are quite small." Similarly, Conor3 disclosed, "Um, kind of. I'm not good at reading small words." Codey2a also expressed, "Not well because I like books with bigger writing." These replies were given very quickly after just glancing at the book for less than one second, alluding to the little consideration given to their true abilities in formation of their responses. Mathewson (1996) found that given a number of unsuccessful attempts an individual would succumb to feelings of failure. Accordingly, these participants, when confronted with an activity similar to those where they had been unsuccessful in the past, assumed that they would not be successful. Despite giving the specific text more consideration than the others, Benji3 still professed a level of uncertainty due to the same qualities of the text.

> AHW: How well do you feel like you could read that?
> Benji3: It depends on how good the vocabulary is on it. (Opens it and looks…. two seconds.) I could probably read it but I think that the writing is a tad too small for me.

In my attempts to clarify what the participants meant by the words "bigger" and "small," I asked questions to distinguish whether the actual font size or the word length was the culprit. All four of the participants referred to the actual font size as being the source of their difficulty rather than their own skill level. In Katzir, Hershko and Halamish's (2013) study, they report that font size coincides with a reader's fluency and comprehension level. They found that students in fifth grade benefitted with a decreased font size, while a smaller font size was detrimental to the fluency and comprehension of students in second grade. This led to their conclusion that as a student becomes older, their ability to progressively decode text with smaller font size increases (Katzir, et. al., 2013). In Zikl, Havlickova, Volfova, and Zetkova's (2016) study, their findings regarding older students are very similar. However, they discovered that students with dyslexia profited from all text modifications, such as enlargements in font size and spaces between words and lines. Although the four participants who reported not being able to

access the text due to its font size were not officially assessed as dyslexic, they all struggled with decoding words. In comparing the reading levels proposed by their standardised and informal assessments, all of their reading levels were nearer to the second year level at the time of this interview. This suggests that many older low-attaining readers benefit from external attributes of the text, such as font style and size. It could also imply that decoding smaller text requires skills that older low-attaining readers associate with having difficulty and acts as a deterrent from their reading the material.

Although the font size could be an impediment, the reading levels suggested by the four participants' standardised and informal pre-tests indicate that the text was above their ability to access it, regardless of its size. By assigning their difficulty to the external feature of font size, they were able to maintain a positive sense of self and their reading abilities. A slight overestimation of a student's ability to read a passage can be a positive source of motivation (Bandura, 1997). However, the tendency for low-attaining readers to be overly confident can create issues because it indicates a lack of metacognition (Klassen, 2006). The participants' quick responses permitted insufficient time for them to cognitively process the question and exposed their limited ability or desire to analyse tasks to truly consider their weaknesses and strengths. Without these metacognitive processes, they were unable to determine and incorporate strategies to compensate for these weaknesses. These quick responses also suggest that the participants had a "fixed mindset" of their ability levels. At some point, they had labelled their reading abilities and the outcome of future reading experiences had been decided, making it unnecessary to spend time in forming their response to my question.

Contrastingly, two other participants attributed their difficulties to aspects of the text and their skill levels. When asked regarding his ability to read the text, Aaron3 uttered, "Sort of." Upon my further queries, he continued, "Some words I can't pronounce," whereas Dawn3 ascribed these impediments to the word length and difficulty level.

Dawn3: Well, it would take me a while. It doesn't look like one of the books that I usually read but if I had to read it, I would read it. It looks a bit hard to read but I would try.

AHW: Why do you feel like it looks a bit hard?

Dawn3: Because usually books like this, are quite hard. Like if you look at it, *horizon* and all of that and *astonishment.* They look quite hard. If there are words like that in it, then there'll be harder ones.

When in the role as a tutee, Daisy2a from the core group shared similar sentiments. She stated, "I might get stuck on a few words because they've got a few different words like *towards* and *crumbled* and stuff like that. I don't really use those words so it would be new to me." These replies suggest that they had growth mindsets (Dweck, 2017); they were willing to attempt the task despite the possible difficulties that it could pose for them. However, Bandura (1997) argues that a growth mindset alone is insufficient to motivate an individual to perform a task unless it is coupled with beliefs of self-efficacy. Dawn3's expression about the difficulty of the text, especially compared to books that she usually read shows that she found the task daunting and the word "try" indicates her feelings of low self-efficacy towards the task. According to Dawn3's reply, she was not intrinsically motivated to read but would complete the task if she "had to," indicating that self-efficacy is not required when extrinsic motivations are present. Although they were not completely certain of their skill level and their previous exposures to literature could have had mixed results, they had enough self-efficacy to still attempt a reading task. Despite having reading scores that tended to be higher than those in the group who put any issue down to font size, they were much more apt to underestimate their skills.

Even though this seemingly relates to Klassen's (2006) report that students with average skills often underestimated their reading skills, these participants were still considered low-attaining readers. According to the standardised assessments, the proposed attainment levels of these students were much lower than the scores of most of their classmates. Thus, according to Pintrich et. al. (1994) and Klassen's (2006) studies, they should have overestimated their skills but they did not mention font size as an element of concern. Their responses also coincide with studies that propose students in the older

elementary grades as being able to decode words in smaller sizes of font (Katzir, et. al., 2013; Zikl, et. al., 2016). Additionally, their attributing their difficulty to specific words suggests that they looked at these words in a decontextualised way rather than as a semantic unit. This implies that they viewed reading as the ability to decode rather than comprehend. As they considered their ability to read the text and the utilisation of strategies, these behaviours resembled those of individuals with growth mindsets. Therefore, they were not underestimating their skill levels, instead they were merely able to view their weaknesses and strengths accurately.

Other participants attributed their inabilities in reading the book to particular special educational needs. Although Aaron3 blamed his inability to read the book on the small writing, he later clarified that he was unable to see small words and that they often became "jumbled." His prior experiences dealing with this impediment served as a deterrent to reading that he had accepted and for which had never discussed with or requested assistance from any staff members. He felt like all reading tasks- past, present and future- would always end with him being unsuccessful due to this issue. On being asked how well she would be able to read the book in her initial interview in the tutee role, Amy2a simply declared, "Not well." When probed further she expounded, "Because in primary school I used to struggle a lot with reading because of my dyslexia. And now, I still struggle with it." This could signify that previous bad experiences made her feel that her reading attempts would be unsuccessful. As these difficulties were related to her believing that she had dyslexia, she did not foresee that they would ever change and it offered an acceptable reason for her failure. This excuse also hindered any attempts at other reading tasks, as she envisioned that their end result would always be the same. Both participants had labelled themselves as having a disability, which was a "fixed trait" (Dweck, 2013), and promoted them to envision intelligence as pre-determined. Thus, their responses were immediate and negative because their ability to perform all reading tasks had been decided. As both Aaron3 and Amy2a were able to assign their "struggles" to a condition, this did not necessarily alter their perceptions of value and intelligence.

In subsequent interviews, all of the participants were asked about their ability to read the book that they selected for their tutor time. Their responses were based on the three

weeks that they had been reading texts that were on comparable levels to that of their English set text. Despite holding reservations about reading a book with similar qualities to the text from their English curriculum, one of these qualities being similar font size, the four participants' views had changed to a degree. Previously, Benji3 attributed the difficulty that the reading task would pose to him was mainly due to the font size. In the final interview, he declared, "Well, some of the words are tricky but I think that the words that are normal, I could read." Although he no longer assigned difficulty to the font size, Benji3 still attributed his difficulties to the words themselves. When the words were "normal," then he had the skills that anyone else would be expected to have and would be able to read them. Whereas, the "tricky" words were not ordinary so it would not be anticipated for anyone, along with himself, to be able to read these words.

When assuming the role of tutor, Becky2b declared, "I think that I can read it quite well. Because in the beginning, it was a big book and I wasn't too sure on it. But now I've got into it, I feel like I can read it a bit easier." During her first interview as a tutee, Becky2a almost instantly reported her inability to read the book without looking at it but she was now considering the plausibility of her ability to read the material. This suggests that her previous experiences at reading the book during her time as a tutee had been positive, at least to some degree. With the change of her role and with practice, she felt that her ability to read the material had increased. Amy2a's statement also reveals that some of this positivity could relate to the reassurance that the tutor's presence gave.

AHW: How well do you feel like you can read that book?

Amy2a: It's like okay but there are some difficult words that I would need help with.

AHW: And do you feel like it's gotten easier to read that book?

Amy2a: Yeah, because the more that you get into the story, you find out more and the words, you can break them down easier.

AHW: And do you feel like you can understand the book well?

Amy2a: Yeah. Because if I don't understand some things Adam1 will help me like with the word or something.

Amy's emphasis on the "words" of the text signifies her concept of reading as one based on the ability to "break" the words "down," a synthetic phonics strategy, rather than understanding the text. Upon discussing the importance of getting "into the story" to assist with the words, this highlights her awareness of the words being parts of a whole and the utilisation of contextual cues, an analytic phonics strategy. The employment of both types of strategies is indicative of her more balanced approach to reading the text.

Initially, Amy2a immediately stated her inability to read the material because it had previously been determined. After three weeks of being a tutee, she examined the material, indicating her changing mindset. Her words, "okay" and "some difficult," suggest that she had gained a degree of efficacy, while the words "need help" show that she did not feel that her skills were sufficient enough on their own. However, she was not embarrassed to admit that this assistance was necessary and was willing to try. In her final interview acting as a tutee, Amy2a was shown the English book again and asked the same question regarding her ability to read the book. This time she looked through it and stated, "I would probably get stuck on some words but be confident as well." Previously, she disregarded her ability to read it due to her "dyslexic" condition. Now, she compared the content of the book to the skills that she felt she possessed. Like the previous students, she did not give an absolute affirmation but she considered her realistic ability to read the material. In addition, the utilisation of the word "confident" suggests that she had some degree of certainty in her own skills and no longer required the assistance of her tutor.

Contrastingly, Daisy2a, who initially felt like it would be "tricky" to read the English class novel, reported that she could read the novel "quite well" in her final interview as a tutee. "Tricky" connotes a capability with an element of difficulty, while "quite well" indicates ability with a degree of uncertainty, indicating a change in her sense of self-efficacy towards reading.

Similarly, Codey2a first discredited his ability to read the novel almost immediately with the words, "not well." In his final interview as a tutee, he thumbed through the book for a few seconds before announcing that he could read the novel, "alright," suggesting that his confidence in his abilities to effectively read the passage had increased over the stage

with him acting as a tutee. The short pause between the posing of the question and his response provided him with the time to process his abilities in regards to the specific passage.

While the participants' responses and the time and attention that they spent in constructing their replies varied, all of the participants proposed a willingness to attempt the task by the end of each stage, suggesting that they had growth mindsets. According to the reading levels suggested by all of participants' informal assessments, their self-efficacy reports corresponded more accurately with their levels of reading attainment. When assuming the role of tutee during the stage, both the tutees' and core group members' responses towards reading the material also indicated a progression in their effectiveness and confidence in doing so. In contrast, the four tutors' responses did not alter. At the beginning of the stage, they expressed their ability to read the novel and they maintained this belief throughout the stage. All of the participants had been asked regarding their willingness to tutor other individuals, which could be an indication that the tutor role promoted feelings of their reading efficacy. When they were placed in the tutor role to assist another individual with their reading, they became models of 'good' reading. Therefore, their own perceptions of their reading abilities began to coincide with their role.

6.1.2 Confidence in Reading Skills

Once the participants showed self-efficacy and a belief that they were able to read a specific passage, the extension of this confidence in reading other texts became apparent in their interviews and my observations. On their initial interview, the word "confidence," or any of its stemmed words, was never mentioned by any of the participants. Throughout the process, one of the participants utilised this word and some of the others adopted it. In subsequent interviews, it was utilised over fifty-five times and over half of these were by Adam1 and Amy2. In his mid- and final interview, Adam1 utilised the term eighteen times. Posed with the question about what made someone a good reader, Adam1 stated, "Confidence. Um, speaking loudly and projecting their voice." Throughout the stage, his reports of his own confidence changed dramatically.

Adam1 never utilised the term in his initial interview. In his second interview when asked about his own reading habits, he replied, "I find reading more fun. And I've got a bit more confident about reading and normal life." By his final interview, he expressed that "my confidence is probably in the middle and I think about it quite a lot while I'm reading." When queried as to how and if this had changed from the beginning, he stated, "Quite a bit. I'm more confident as a reader. And I think that I'm reading better." This indicates that Adam1 began associating confidence to reading well and he focussed on increasing both during the stage. This emphasis played a role in his individual metacognitive processes and in his tutoring relationship with Amy2a.

Similar to Adam1, Amy2a never employed the term "confidence" or any of its stemmed words in her initial interview but this changed in her two other interviews. In the first stage, she used the word nine times. Initially, she utilised the term to describe Adam1. "He must know how it feels to like not to be confident. And now, he's a very good reader." In her final interview, she was asked what made someone a good reader.

AHW: What makes someone a good reader?
Amy2a: Being confident, blah. Con-fi-dent. Being confident and making the book flow.
AHW: And how can they do that?
Amy2a: Um, read it slowly like make sure that they're confident.
AHW: Like confident in what?
Amy2a: In like reading and reading out loud.

Although Amy2a held similar beliefs to Adam1 that confidence is what makes someone a good reader, she saw this as a more interpersonal skill, which enabled reading aloud. Upon queries made regarding her perceptions of herself as a reader, she stated, "I'm a lot more confident than I was at the start because I didn't really like reading at all at the start. And now, I actually enjoy it." This was a sentiment shared by Adam1 and points towards their feeling that confidence positively related to their enjoyment levels.

When acting as a tutor, Amy2b only used the term "confidence" twice and Aaron3 never employed the term. This implies that Adam1 began employing the term and emphasising

its importance, which Amy2a adopted upon working with him. When he was no longer present, she only occasionally employed the word and Aaron3 did not adopt it. This does not necessarily mean that she no longer associated confidence with reading. In her final interview of the second stage, Amy2b reported reading articles on social media daily, which previously she had not done. "Like whenever I'm on Facebook and I see an article, I press on it and I read it. I don't even mean to read it; it just happens." When asked why she had not read these articles previous to the project, she responded, "I don't know. I just thought that I couldn't read it and now I'm confident in myself." This signifies that as time and her skills progressed, confidence became an element of her subconscious that she no longer distinguished as a separate condition.

Even though others did not employ the term as frequently, other participants determined it to be characteristic of good readers. When asked to identify traits of good readers, Beth1 reported, "Just to be like quite confident and they have to believe in themselves." Upon the inquiry of her own skills, Beth1 expounded, "I used to not enjoy it or anything but I feel like I've got more better. I mean I've got more confident." When Daisy2b assumed the tutor role, she also attributed her increased enjoyment and reading skills to her altered change of mind. "I'm confident," she explained when asked regarding the reasons for the change from her initial and final interview. Additionally, Conor3 described himself as a good reader as opposed to his initial interview. When asked about what had changed during the stage, he stated, "A lot. Like, I couldn't read confidently when I came." These participants attributed confidence directly to their reading success.

Without it, they were not able to fully participate or enjoy the task of reading, which acted as a deterrent from even starting to read. Therefore, this lack of confidence created a sense of low reading self-efficacy as they did not feel like they could successfully read the specific book in the present circumstance. Bong (2006) clarifies that self-efficacy in a task is specific to the same circumstance and setting, whereas an individual's self-concept of a skill is far more generalised. However, the participants' responses suggest that increase in self-efficacy can lead to similar effects to one's self-concept and the relationship between success, confidence and self-efficacy is reciprocal and a pattern seemed to develop. As the participants started reading during the sessions, they were successful with the help of their tutor. This success increased their feelings of self-

efficacy towards reading their chosen book during the sessions and led to further opportunities for success. With this success, they became more confident in their abilities to read other books. This confidence encouraged the participants to read other books and their sense of reading self-efficacy increased as they were able to read these specific books successfully. These successes enhanced their confidence in their reading skills. By reaching this positive view of their reading abilities based on these past experiences, the participants seemed to be able to generalise these skills and utilise them in other situations.

By the end of stage, all of the participants described themselves as being somewhere in this process of progression. According to Dweck's (2013) work, the participants' view that they could progress is indicative of their growth. When asked regarding his feelings of himself as a reader, Adam1 stated, "Not as good as I could be but I'm getting there." Other participants expressed that they were closer to the end result of becoming a good reader. Chloe1 confessed, "I wasn't so good at reading but now I kind of think I am." The core group's final interview responses changed between stages. By the end of the first stage and their roles as tutees, all of the core group members viewed themselves as being somewhere in the middle of this process.

AHW: How do you feel about yourself as a reader?
Codey2b: Well, I think that I do well in my reading.
AHW: Has that changed?
Codey2b: I've become a better reader than I was.
AHW: How are you a better reader?
Codey2b: I can read books that I didn't used to be able to read.

Codey2b's words specifically focus on his own progress, suggesting that ipsative assessment was significant to his feelings of success. Similarly, Becky2b concentrated on her own work and improvement, "I used to flat-line. I didn't use to make any progress. Now I make a lot of progress, because I practise and practise." While the two other core members stated that they had progressed, they felt that these skills would deteriorate without continual effort. "I know that I've got better. I just need to keep doing it or I'll just get bad again." Their emphasis on "progress" and the necessity for

continual work is indicative of a growth mindset (Dweck, 2017) where their actions determined their success.

After their final interview acting as tutors, all of the core members proposed that they had progressed in this process. While Becky2b felt that she was "getting there," Codey2b, Daisy2b and Amy2b declared that they were 'good' readers. The identification of themselves as readers or on the process to becoming a good reader symbolises their increasing self-concept and their growth mindsets. According to Bong & Skaalvik (2003), these beliefs tend to be "stable over time" and "resistant." Therefore, they take longer to influence than self-efficacy. One stage was enough time to initiate this process but two stages provided most of the core group members with the time necessitated to start altering their self-concepts. They no longer viewed themselves as non-readers; instead they had become 'readers.' As self-concepts are more resistant to change, this offers stronger assurance that they would remain long after the study's conclusion.

6.2 Social Reflections on the Students' Reading

As the initial question was posed, many of the participants were positive regarding their ability to read the material. When their peers became a component to the task, the participants' responses became more negative. As one of this study's purposes is to explore the effects that the intervention had on the participants' perceptions of themselves as readers, the comparisons that they made of their own skills to others is significant and evolved into a theme. As the participants began to develop their identities as readers, their introspections were continuously counterbalanced with their social reflections (Schunk, et. al., 2008). This social process was especially significant as the participants were adolescents and their self-perceptions were generally more reliant on what their peers thought. As the participants compared their reading skill levels to the reading skills of those around them, they made social comparisons to determine their level of proficiency. They also detected that other individuals were making the same comparisons. In their interview responses, their words often focussed on comparing themselves to their peers and the appraisals that their peers were making of the participants' abilities, evolving into the subthemes. As these comparisons provided a

context from which to base their concept of a "good" reader, they involved more than just a specific task or situation. Although these judgements can affect the way that they interpret their ability to succeed given a specific task, these social comparisons are more directly correlated to an individual's self-concept (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003). The individual measures him or herself against this concept and creates their reader identities. This interpersonal theme is comprised of these two subthemes of appraisal and comparison.

6.2.1- Peer Appraisals of their Reading Skills

As discussed in the previous section, most of the participants eventually verbally confirmed their ability to read the English class novel. This response only pertained to completing the task by themselves or in my company. When the participants were asked how well they could read the material in their English classroom, seven of the students who were previously positive about their skills now retorted with somewhat pessimistic reports.

While all the tutors were positive about their ability to read the passage in their initial interview, they changed their position when a change in atmosphere was proposed.

AHW: How well do you feel like you could read this book?

Beth1: (Looking at it ...2 seconds.) Yeah, not too bad.
AHW: Would you feel okay about reading it in front of the class?
Beth1: I would feel a bit scared about it.
AHW: Why would you be scared about it?
Beth1: In case I mess up.
AHW: Okay, so do you feel that way about everything that you do in front of people or just reading?
Beth1: Just kind of reading.
AHW: Why do you feel that way?
Beth1: Because I just feel like I'm going to mess up. It's really embarrassing. Like if I get stuck or something. I don't know what it is.

Peers provided an additional component on which they could judge their own ability levels. Tice and Wallace (2003) declare that the social world provides a comparison from which an individual derives their level of ability as they appraise others' skills, their own skills and perceive how others are appraising their skills. According to Brown (1998), it is way that the individual perceives that others appraise their skills that most resembles their own self-perceptions. When their peers were not involved, all of the tutors reported positively about their ability to read the passage. The change that occurred with the incorporation of their classmates indicates that they feared that their peers' appraisals of their skills would be negative, which decreased their feelings of self-efficacy in reading the passage.

However, some of this hesitation could have evolved from reticence. Chloe1 stated, "I'm not keen on that but I'll do it if I have to." When asked further about her disinclination, she expressed the nervousness that she experienced when others looked at her, a feeling inclusive to any activity. While Dani1 was more insistent regarding her refusal to read aloud in the class, she stated that this negativity was not limited to her English classroom and was a result of her shyness; Adam1 shared this general sense of timidity. All of the tutors were originally positive about their ability to read the specific passage, indicating that they had reader self-efficacy. When there was a change in atmosphere and their peers were present, their enthusiasm waivered. As this was a hesitation rather than a refusal, this suggests that their feelings of reader self-efficacy were robust enough to withstand changes in atmosphere. Bong (2003) conveys that self-efficacy pertains to a specific environment and situation. Therefore, their ability to perform the task in other locations suggests that alterations to their reader self-concept had begun to occur.

Additionally, the tutors' responses support findings that an individual's self-concept of one subcomponent does not affect their self-concepts of other subcomponents (Arens, et. al., 2011; Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976). As Chloe1, Dani1 and Adam1 blamed their nervousness on their reticence and something that they experienced whenever they performed any skill in front of others, this does not implicate that they had lower self-concepts of the reading subcomponent. In contrast, Beth1's discomfort was specific to

reading in front of her peers, suggesting that she had a higher self-concept of her abilities in other academic subcomponents.

As the tutors' responses to the initial question of reading the book from their English classroom were much more positive, it was not surprising that the other participants were even more negative about reading the book in front of their peers. Social belonging is particularly important to secondary students (Ehrlinger, et. al., 2016). As many had experienced failure previously, they had negative perceptions of their reading skills and they perceived that their classmates' appraisals would be similar (Brown, 1998). In order to escape these negative perceived appraisals and the resulting marginalisation, some participants were willing to become non-compliant and refuse to read. Three of the four participants who had previously found that reading the passage would be difficult due to its font size altered their stance. If asked to read in front of his English class, Codey2b felt like it would be "okay." However, in subsequent interviews, he refuted this statement and indicated that he would have refused to read in front of others prior to the intervention. When asked about reading in English, Daisy2a iterated that she would not because, "I don't like going up in front of people." When I probed about whether this was an issue that she experienced in every classroom and when participating in other tasks, she stated that this was not a problem that she had in any other subject. Her ability to perform other tasks in front of her peers shows that her hesitancy was not a matter of reticence.

Although Benji3's response was quite positive, I posed subsequent questions to decipher his complete meaning, which revealed an inconsistency in his reports.

AHW: And this book, if you were asked to stand up in your English class and read it, would you be okay with it?

Benji3: I'd be a bit okay with it just depending on how the big the words were again.

AHW: So you'd be 'a bit okay?' What do you mean by 'a bit okay?'

Benji3: I'd say 20 per cent would be okay, but the rest would be not okay with it.

AHW: So when you say a bit okay with it, what do you mean by that?

Benji3: That I'd keep on just going "uh, uh, uh" in different parts of the book.

AHW: Would you be confident about that if your teacher asked you to do that?

Benji3: It depends on how many people that there were because I'm a bit shy.

AHW: If it was in your English class?

Benji3: It just depends on what people were there. If a boy named A. was there, I wouldn't because he always butts in.

These further questions exposed Benji3's uncertainty when feeling judged by particular individuals and signifies his wariness to envision a specific individual's response to his reading. While the specificity of his response indicates sincerity, it also suggests that the other individual had reacted poorly to Benji3's previous reading performances in the classroom. When faced with his peer's overt responses to his reading, Benji3 seemed to initiate the process of reflected appraisal first identified by Cooley (1902). His peer's overt response to his reading forced Benji3 to have to emotionally deal with this negativity.

In contrast, the participants that had voiced insecurity towards their ability to read the passage held similar thoughts about reading in other settings. Conor3 stated, "I'm not that good at reading." The reasons that he gave were that "sometimes I stutter and it's really annoying." These negative thoughts towards their reader self-efficacy extended to other contexts. They also point towards other past experiences in front of peers from which they felt their peers had gained low appraisals of their reading skills. This also supports the findings in previous chapters that one's performance in one area does not reflect upon other academic components; past failures in reading did not affect their feelings of competency in other subject areas.

Comparably, the participants who felt that different conditions made reading impossible maintained these feelings regardless of the setting. Amy2a stated her strong aversion to reading by saying that if she was called on to read in her classroom, she "would refuse to do it." Upon my attempts to clarify if this was due to the task or performing in front of others, she said that, "It's like if I get asked to spell something, then I wouldn't do that either just like reading." Other subjects, such as maths, she found "well easy." As she had performed and imagined that others' views of her skills in other subjects were positive, she held higher feelings of competency and self-concept in these subcomponents. She seemed to identify her "dyslexic" condition as a fixed trait, leading her to have a fixed mindset of her reading and spelling attainment levels. As her peers' low appraisals of her reading competency were certain, she wanted to avoid any situations that could expose their incompetence (Dweck, 2017). Therefore, Amy2a's conviction of her "dyslexic" condition equated to her peers' negative perceived appraisals, regardless of their actual responses to her reading in the past, present or future.

Likewise, Aaron3 was "not keen" to read in front of others but he did not object to participating during classes in other subjects. He announced that this hesitancy was "because if I make a mistake, someone might say something." His reluctance suggests that his condition had produced previous negative experiences that resulted in his worries of appearing incompetent to his peers. Ingesson (2007) found that low-attaining readers were often the recipients of negative behaviour from their peers, especially during their late primary and early secondary school years. Even though Ingesson's (2007) study focussed on dyslexic students, they experienced similar attainment issues as the participants in my study. As discussed in Chapter 2, there are numerous definitions of dyslexia. In Ingesson's study, individuals were chosen to participate if there was a discrepancy of two or more years in their levels of attainment to the standard assumed for their age; the participants in my study had similar discrepancies in their levels of reading attainment. Therefore, it can be assumed that many experienced similar situations with their peers that contributed to their fears of reading in front of them. This behaviour would have most likely promoted their negative perceived appraisals as well as sentiments of marginalisation.

In subsequent interviews, the participants who previously verbalised their fear of reading aloud in their English classroom were calmed to an extent. Dani1 was less adamant in her desires not to read, she declared, "Yeah, I feel like if I had to, then I would. But if there was an option, then I probably wouldn't." Likewise, Adam1 and Chloe1 expressed the same desire to not stand up in front of others but pronounced that sitting at their seats was not an issue. Adam1 expressed, "If it's out loud, I get a bit shy. If you just have to sit there and I read it, that's fine." While in their first interview, most of the tutors had announced their shy tendencies, only one tutee also revealed this same concern. When asked regarding her ability to read aloud in her later interview, Dawn3 announced, "I'd feel more comfortable in having to do that but I get stage fright. I'm getting there though." These participants had all indicated that their trepidation was not exclusive to reading, and therefore, cannot be attributed to a low reader self-concept. Although as their skills increased, this was reflected in their levels of confidence and led to a reduction in their hesitancy to read aloud in class. In contrast, previously they felt that any reading performance would lead to their peers' negative appraisals of their skills, their increased confidence in their competency levels seemed to make success more probable and their fears of their peers' judgements subside to a degree. However, they still identified themselves as individuals who were timid to perform any skill in front of others and an increase in their skill efficacy did not alter their identification as being a shy individual.

In contrast, participants, who expressed a fear to read for reasons other than reticence, reported rather more significant changes in their feelings of competency. Although originally Beth1 had reservations of reading aloud in her class, she stated, "I used to hate reading. I'd sit there and be like, 'I hope that I don't get picked to read.' I didn't used to like it and now it doesn't really bother me." Beth1 felt sufficiently confident in her own skills that she no longer felt that her peers would appraise her as an incompetent reader.

In comparison, Conor3's transformation was not as significant. When Conor3 was asked in his final interview regarding his inclination to read in front of his classmates, he declared, "Probably not like all of the class but half." Upon my queries as to his disinclination to read to the class in its entirety, he continued, "Cause I don't know. I get really nervous that people might start talking, like being rude and that." His reader self-

efficacy had increased to where he felt comfortable to read in the classroom environment. Once, he was faced with the additional social component, the fear of all of his peers' judgements were still daunting but his willingness to read to half of his classmates confirms the diminishment of these fears to a degree.

While Becky2a had initially been adamant in her refusal to read in the classroom, at the end of Stage 1, Becky2a stated, "It's changed a lot because I wasn't able to go in front of the class and read at all. Now I can go up and read a little bit, but I can't read a lot." These sentiments were similar to those given about her ability to read the specific passage; her reader self-efficacy and reader self-concept were similar. At the end of second stage, Becky2b positively declared her self-efficacy in reading the passage. This positivity was echoed in her willingness to read in front of others and to face their referred appraisals.

Initially, Codey2a reported that he would be "okay" to read in front of others but in his interview at the end of the first stage, he asserted, "To myself, I'd be alright. I don't really like reading out loud." He continued, "Sometimes, Miss asks me to like read some of the book out loud. I used to not really want to because I didn't really like reading so I didn't really want to read out loud." As his displeasure for the experience had already been communicated, this statement seemed to be contradictory to his initial casual response. This, along with the promptness and inattentiveness given to his initial reply, signifies that the report was not indicative of his actual thoughts. By the end of the second stage, Codey2b confirmed that he was competent enough to read in front of his class. Subsequently, I posed a further question regarding how he felt like this had changed in attempt to discern the accuracy of his response and he stated, "Cause I would stumble on the words or say I can't read that. But now that I've read more, I can understand a lot more." He no longer perceived that his peers' appraisals of his skills would be negative because his own self-perceptions were no longer negative.

Like Codey2b, Daisy2b had also both expressed a positive self-efficacy of their ability to read the passage which occurred after she had assumed the role of tutor. Although Daisy2b's reports about reading aloud were consistent across interviews, she felt like they had altered substantially, "Like it's changed a lot because at first I didn't really want

to read and now I do." Upon queries as to whether this desire also included reading aloud, Daisy2b replied, "Like, I don't mind reading in front of people but sometimes it's a bit embarrassing in case you get a word wrong." Her additional comment did not correspond with her former articulations that were given in a rapid manner, indicating the lack of thought given to her first interview when she was a tutee. This comment also implies that she had considered the possibility of not reading perfectly and an acknowledgement of her peers' appraisals, making this response more probable. Despite the discrepancies in her replies, they indicate her positive conception of her skills and abilities expressed in her final second stage response. Daisy2b reported to "normally" reading aloud in her English classroom. Regardless of the situation or atmosphere, her consistently positive attitude signifies that she viewed herself as a confident and competent person who felt others' perceptions would reflect this competency. This consistency indicates that she had reader self-efficacy and reader self-concept but it did not reflect the gradual increase of her skills that her informal and standardised assessments suggest.

In contrast, Benji3's response to his final interview was consistent with his first. He maintained that he would be fine unless a particular individual was in attendance who had a tendency to "butt in," suggesting that his reader self-concept and feelings towards others' appraisals of his skills stayed consistent but they did not correspond with the skill levels proposed by his informal assessments.

The opposite occurred in the cases of Amy2a and Aaron3 who both expressed an aversion to reading in front of their peers. Initially, Aaron3 was very hesitant as he felt that his classmates would judge him but his timidity changed into confidence by the final interview. He no longer expressed any hesitation about reading in front of his peers. He explained the reasons for this reversal by saying, "I didn't really know how to pronounce words and now I do." His increase of skill was reflected in the perceptions of his own competence and his feelings that his peers' appraisals would echo this new competence; these perceptions paralleled the skill levels submitted by his informal and formal, standardised assessments.

At the end of Stage 1, Amy2a's initial adamant refusals were mitigated, "I'm like confident enough to put my hand up but I'm still shy when it comes to it." Her confidence in her reading skills points towards an increase in her reader self-efficacy as she was able to read in a different atmosphere and this was continued until the end of the second stage.

> AHW: How do you feel about reading in English class?
> Amy2b: With a small group of people that I'm comfortable with, I wouldn't mind. With some people, I would mind. But that the people that like laugh at someone or tell jokes, I wouldn't be comfortable.
> AHW: How does that compare to last year when we first started?
> Amy2b: I was not comfortable at all. I wouldn't even read to no one.

This implies that her confidence in her skills and her competency levels had increased after having been a tutor. Amy2b no longer felt that failure was imminent which enabled her to face her peers' appraisals of her skills. This is also reflected in her assessment scores. As her diffidence was exclusive to reading, her wariness suggests that her reader self-concept was still limited to a degree.

Despite a deviation in the responses given by the participants regarding their ability to read a specific passage, all of the participants indicated hesitation towards reading the passage aloud in their English classroom. This hesitation was often attributed to a shy predisposition or a concern for their classmates' reactions to any errors that they might make, suggesting a difficulty to extend their sense of reader self-efficacy to other locale. It also proposes that reading in their classrooms had previously led to bad experiences and their perceptions that their peers appraised their skills as being incompetent. In subsequent interviews, accounts of their ability to read the passage increased while their apprehension of doing this in front of their peers decreased in most cases. This implies that a surge in reader self-efficacy would associate with the participant's feelings that their competence could be replicated in other environments and appraised positively by their peers. Dissimilar to the other participants, Benji3's trepidation was moderate, consistent and accredited to the presence of one individual. Although these relate to his

positive self-efficacy, they do not correspond with his informal assessment reading levels, which are deemed as being on a lower reading level than the other candidates.

While the hesitancy that the participants experienced was in varying degrees, it seemed to be based upon the referred appraisals that they felt others would make in regards to their performance. For example, when these perceived appraisals were negative, then this equated into self-appraisals of incompetence and poor reader self-concepts. Likewise, when the participants' self-concepts were negative, then they perceived that others envisioned them as being incompetent. When they began to view themselves and their skills as competent, they perceived that their peers' appraisals were also positive and they were more inclined to read in front of them.

As the participants' reports of willingness to read in front of their peers relates to their tutoring role, it seems like this was a larger contributing factor than their increased reading attainment levels. Even though all of the core group members had experienced substantial growth in their levels of attainment during their tutee phase and were less hesitant to read in front of their peers, they were still hesitant to a degree. Likewise, three of the tutees' assessment scores had increased, along with their willingness to read in front of their peers, but they still held similar reservations. As discussed in Chapter 4, the participants' attainment levels did not experience the amount of growth during their time as tutors than they did as tutees. However, all of the core group members were willing to read in front of their peers after they had been tutors, suggesting that assuming the role of expert had increased their reader self-concepts.

6.2.2- Social Comparisons

Conversely, the participants also made evaluations of their classmates' skills; "children compare themselves with others and draw inferences about themselves on the basis of what these comparisons show" (Brown, 1998, p. 96). These evaluations produced an image of how well they felt that they were performing in relation to their peers and their class as a whole. Unlike their previous statements regarding their willingness to read aloud, these judgements did not take performing the skill in front of others into account.

Therefore, this eliminated the shyness element and permitted a more valid vision of their feelings of competence to emerge.

In social comparisons, the object that the individual is making their comparison against is significant (Marsh, 2007). As the participants were comparing themselves with their classmates, these comparisons were being made against individuals that the English department deemed as having a similar skill set. English classes at the school are grouped according to numerous items, such as standardised reading assessments, previous classroom performance and spelling levels. Even though these groups are supposed to be similar, the different skills that are considered in their formation could lead to discrepancies. By considering their scores on the SRS2 (Hagley, 2001), other English skills are excluded so reading skills can become the focus. Additionally, these scores can be utilised alongside their interview responses to provide a means of comparing their perceptions of their skills and a more accurate picture of how these compared to their classmates' reading levels on this exam. Although assessments can serve as an indication of a student's reading abilities, they are not always a precise measurement. Thus, these comparisons are general observations of the group rather than detailed measurements of specific students within their classes. As many of the tutors were outside of the age range that the school assesses utilising the SRS2, the tutors' social comparisons are not considered in this section.

Assessments are significant to individuals with growth and fixed mindsets but for different reasons. According to Ehrlinger and her associates (2016), individuals with growth mindsets are generally open to information and an accurate evaluation about their strengths and weaknesses; this information would provide a starting point that they would surpass through effort, strategy and other people's assistance. Contrastingly, individuals with fixed mindsets have a tendency to avoid or interpret the information that enables them to preserve these labels, often leading them to be overly confident of their skills. Although Dawn3 did not want to read aloud, her fears were due to reticence rather than feelings of inadequacy. She declared, "I'm probably in the middle. I'm not the worst but I'm not the best." At the beginning of the school year, she rated the lowest in the class according to standardised assessments but her initial running record indicated that this

score did not reflect her true attainment level. Thus, her self-report is another indication that the SRS2 was inaccurate. By the conclusion of the study, Dawn3's standardised score was close to her class's mean score and corresponded more closely with her running record.

Similar to Dawn3, Conor3 was timid to read in front of his peers. While he initially reported himself as being in "the middle," he recounted this statement in his final interview and said that he felt like he was now in the "middle" in comparison to his peers but he felt like he had been in "the lower" part of his class in the beginning. When considering this information along with his standardised scores of his class, Conor3's initial score was intermediate but his final score was one of the highest. This could suggest that he consistently desired to be average so he continually reported operating on the middle, not inferior or superior to his peers. Adolescents have a greater desire to assimilate with their peers than any other age group (Carroll, Green, Houghton & Wood, 2003; Jones, et. al., 2012). If a student is at either end of the spectrum of ability, their lower or higher ability level can make them the object of extra attention from the teacher and their classmates. Therefore, their placement in the middle of this spectrum could have been desired as it permitted assimilation with their peers.

Like many of the participants, Daisy2a was negative about reading aloud in front of her peers. When rating her skills in relation to her classmates, she initially stated being in the "lower" portion of the class. This suggests that her initial report regarding her ability to read the text from the English curriculum was overly confident. Interestingly, Daisy2a's reports were consistent with her class as her standardised score was lower than most of her peers. By the final interview, she ranked herself as being in the "upper" portion of the class, which was reflected in her final assessment and supported her claims of being in the top portion of her class. This does reflect that her perception of her skills had increased to where she felt competent, and in some cases more advanced, in comparison to her peers. As they were accurate comparisons, they also suggest that she had a growth mindset and viewed her skills realistically and utilised this information to improve.

In his initial interview, Codey2a reported positively regarding reading in front of his peers but he recounted this in a later interview. In this same interview, Codey2a asserted,

"I was near the bottom but now I feel like I've progressed more to the middle." By the final interview of the second stage, he pronounced that he was "middle to high" in comparison to his peers. Codey2b had increased in reading level according to his assessments; he had commenced at a score that was substantially lower than his class's mean score and concluded at just above. Codey2a's initial positive report was an inaccurate reflection of his skills in comparison to his peers, signifying his overconfidence. As his mindset seemed to change, he was able to view his weaknesses as something that he could change, leading to increased efforts and revealing his growth mindset.

Despite being in the same English class, Aaron3 and Benji3 perceived their skills very differently. Initially, Aaron3 was very reluctant to read in front of his peers, which he attributed to a learning condition but his hesitations subsided with the rise in his attainment levels. Aaron3 professed, "I was near the bottom but now I feel like I've progressed more to the middle." In his initial interview, Benji3 stated that he was in the "middle" and maintained this perception throughout the stage. This is reflective of the reports that Benji3 gave regarding his attainment level and attitude towards reading in front of others. Both of his standardised scores were by far the lowest in his class. While the reading levels proposed by the informal and formal, standardised assessments indicated that Aaron3 was performing on a much higher level than Benji3, Aaron3 was consistently less confident in his reports of his skills.

According to Bandura (1997), overconfidence can prove beneficial, equating to Benji3 being more apt to persist than Aaron3 when they encountered difficulties with their reading. However, as high levels of confidence or of self-efficacy will never equate to competency without the knowledge required to perform the skill (Schunk & Meece, 2006), the degree of Benji3's overconfidence could have proven detrimental to him. The difference between Benji3's standardised and informal assessments intimated that he was decoding words without comprehending them. Similar to the low-attaining readers in De Milliano et. al.'s study (2016), Benji3 did not monitor his comprehension, maintaining his belief that he had performed the skill well and needed no assistance. His fixed mindset further led him to disregard any feedback that contradicted with this notion. His overconfidence may have encouraged him to persist with his efforts but these efforts

remained insufficient. In addition, this overconfidence coupled with an absence of comprehension monitoring along with his fixed mindset made him believe that these efforts were successful and no assistance was required. As his peers' appraisals were directly related to his own appraisals of his skills, Benji3 was able to maintain that their perceptions of his skills were also positive with the exception of one individual who was openly negative. As the "looking-glass self" (Cooley, 1902) provided by his peer was inconsistent with the fixed mindset, this could have made it difficult for Benji3 to correlate these two images. Compounded by his peer's overt responses, Benji3 was unable to easily disregard this negativity and reconcile it with his contradictory self-perception. Therefore, he could have attempted to avoid reading in front of this particular individual to preserve his fixed mindset.

In contrast, Aaron3's lower levels of confidence and his lower levels of self-efficacy could have been beneficial. Despite contributing to his initial disinclination to read with his peers, they could have let him perceive the need to improve. As his attainment levels increased and he developed a growth mindset, learning and improvement became a reality.

In Becky2's case, she showed concern for others' opinions of her skills and vowed that she would refuse to read in front of her class. Since primary school, Becky2a stated, "I thought that I was one of the lowest." She confirmed that this was not something that someone else told her, but "I just knew that I wasn't very good at it anyway." She had labelled herself as deficient and did not perceive that any effort would change this fixed mindset. As Becky2a did not share this attitude towards her other class subjects, this suggests that in the past she had experienced some perceived failures, most likely in front of her peers, with reading. These contributed to her somewhat negative feelings towards reading and they were correlated to her standardised scores that suggested that she was performing at the bottom portion of her class.

By the end of the second stage, this changed to "the middle" as "I know that I'm not terrible, or really bad, but I know that I'm not at the top yet. I know that I can do it. I know that I'm not as good as most people in my English." When asked regarding how this had changed, she stated, "It's changed quite a lot because people are saying, 'You

can do it! You can do it!' Cause quite a few of my friends know that I get quite nervous and they're cheering me on sometimes." As Becky2b was very conscious of others and their reflected appraisals, the positivity that some of her peers directed towards her reading success was beneficial to a transformation in her reading self-concept. Even though an individual's perception of their peers' appraisals are generally contradictory to their actual view of the individual, it is these perceived appraisals which most resemble the individual's perception of themselves (Tice & Wallace, 2003) because they are based on these self-perceptions. When Becky2b assumed the tutor role, her peers' actual appraisals became highly influential in the formation of her self-perceptions. As her peers voiced their appraisals, Becky2b saw herself and her reading skills more positively. According to her final standardised score, which was far above her class's mean score, Becky2b was still underestimating her reading competency level even in her role as a tutor. However, she was able to accurately perceive her skills and was encouraged to put forward the effort required to progress and her growth mindset enabled this progression.

Similarly, Amy2a adamantly opposed reading in front of her class in the beginning but her refusals were amended by her willingness to read to small groups in later interviews. Even though the reading skill levels proposed by her assessments and her interviews showed a substantial increase, these advancements did not translate significantly into situations involving her peers. When asked to compare her skills with her classmates, she stated, "I feel like everybody else is higher than me. Like a higher reader and higher in English than me." These social comparisons correlated with her standardised assessments. In the beginning of Stage 1, Amy2a's scores indicated that she was one of the bottom third of the class. Despite a substantial increase in her standardised scores, her position in comparison to the class was stagnant due to a change in the object of her comparison, highlighting the significance of the subject of one's comparison (Marsh, 2007). At the beginning of the school year, Amy2b had been placed into a class that was three levels higher than the class she was in previously. Any inadequacy that she might have felt surrounded by students that she labelled as having skills superior to her own could have influenced these thoughts. I posed further questions in my attempts to determine how this change had affected her self-perceptions.

AHW: This is a hard question because last year you were in a bottom set and now you are in a top set, but if you went back to that class, would you feel like you were one of the best readers?

Amy2b: I wouldn't think that I'd be the best but I don't think that I'd be the worst.

AHW: Why do you think that your teacher moved you?

Amy2b: Cause I did well on the end of year exam.

AHW: Why do you think that you did well on that exam?

Amy2b: Because of this and the help that my teacher gave me.

The Head of English and her English teacher had compared her exam and classwork to her classmates and other students in her year group and decided that her skills merited an advancement of three groups. In her new English class, she consistently received higher marks on her assessment pieces than most of her classmates, indicating that the teacher's decision had been valid. Despite this, Amy2b still did not attribute her own advancement to her own skills. She held a skewed vision of her competency level in comparison to her peers. As she deemed other subjects, such as mathematics as "well easy" and held no reservations to performing these skills in front of her peers, this suggests that her distorted views were unique to her English classroom. As Amy2b had also accredited her difficulties with reading to her "dyslexia," this permitted her to distance herself from her performances. When she felt that these were failures, which they had generally been in the past, this was advantageous as she was able to attribute the negativity to dyslexia, something external, rather than to herself. On occasions that she experienced success, she continued to credit her accomplishment to something external, such as her teacher or the assistance that the intervention provided. This correlates with Dweck's (2017) reports that an individual with a fixed mindset has a tendency to explain away any outcome that does not correspond with the predetermined label of their ability level. However, she also discussed her progression, suggesting that she viewed intelligence as malleable but her dyslexic label as fixed.

As a student's reading attainment level progresses, it is possible that teachers will put them into higher-levelled class groups depending on their performance in the subject's other required skills. Interestingly, Amy2a and Becky2a were classmates and Becky2a

performed better on the standardised assessments. Becky2b was advanced one class group in comparison to Amy2b's three, signifying that Amy2b performed higher in the other skills incorporated into English and not necessarily affected by her "dyslexia." This coincides with the term "frog pond effect" first established by Davis (1966) in which low self-perceptions are attributed to these higher ability atmospheres and lower ability settings are associated to higher self-perceptions (Liem, et. al., 2013). While these advancements can raise their view of themselves as being more competent than their other classmates, it can also lower these perceptions. In these different surroundings, they are given opportunities to compare their ability levels with peers who are expected to have higher skills than themselves. In this case, Amy2b perceived that her classmates were farther advanced which left her with a lower self-perception. However, her skills were assessed at being in the middle to upper portion of her classmates.

A comparison of the reported competence levels of the two core group members who changed English class sets to the two who did not displays that those who remained in their class groups were more positive about their skill levels. Although both Codey2a and Daisy2a reported being lower than most of their peers initially, these changed to being in the "upper" or "middle to high" by their final interview. Amy2a and Becky2a were initially similar in their statements of inadequacy. By the end of Stage 2, Becky2b, who advanced one group level, stated that, "I know that I'm not terrible, or really bad, but I know that I'm not at the top yet." While Amy2b advanced three levels, her perceptions of her skills remained the same, "I feel like everybody else is higher than me. Like a higher reader and higher in English than me." These reports suggest that by increasing the level of their class group and their object for comparison, students' self-perceptions may be affected negatively because they are surrounded by students with skills that they may feel are far advanced to themselves. Thus, teachers must consider the possible negative impact that changing a low-attaining student's class group and their objects for social comparison may cause.

Even though one of the participants had an average score and seven participants' performance was lower than their class's mean score, all of the participants increased in level and seven expressed a more positive social comparison by the end of the stage. Most of these were accurate indications of their levels in comparison to their classmates

as supported by the standardised test scores, alluding to their having growth mindsets of their reading abilities. These mindsets led them to believe that they could develop their skills with effort and an increase in the metacognitive skills necessitated to know the weaknesses for which these efforts were needed. The exception was Benji3.

According to his final performance on the standardised assessment, Benji3's score of seventy was the lowest level provided with a standardised score. Despite having substantially lower standardised scores than his classmates and the other participants, Benji3 reported that his skills were in the "middle" and he did not deviate from this statement. According to Klassen (2006), students with learning difficulties are often over-confident of their skills and average-performing students routinely underestimate their reading skills. This finding does not seem completely accurate. Despite all of the participants performing at a lower level than their peers, only two participants overestimated their skills in their initial interviews. By their final standardised assessment, seven of the participants had progressed and they were performing on the same or a higher level than their peers. In their final interviews, three participants were accurate in their reports while four underestimated their skills. Only Benji3's standardised score showed no improvement, yet he continued to overestimate his attainment level. Without the utilisation of comprehension monitoring, he could not accurately perceive his strengths and weaknesses or envision that he needed to develop his skills. As individuals with fixed mindsets also have a tendency to overestimate their strengths and weaknesses (Ehrlinger, et. al., 2016), this suggests that low-attaining readers often have fixed mindsets due to their inability to know the areas where they need to progress. According to De Milliano et. al. (2016), comprehension monitoring can be taught through explicit comprehension instruction, which would enable low-attaining individuals to envision the areas that they needed to grow. Additionally, this progress should assist an individual's view of learning as something that was malleable. Except for Benji3, the tutees and core group members experienced increases in their comprehension skills in addition to their metacognition skills. This progress and their ability to see their strengths and weaknesses led them to more accurately perceive their abilities and to further develop them, making this a cyclical process and further established their growth mindsets. This could also suggest that only students with

comprehension and metacognition issues continually overestimate their levels of attainment and when these improve, they are able to form more accurate estimations.

6.3 Reflections on the Readers

The second research question involves understanding the participants' self-perceptions and detecting any changes generated by the tutoring sessions. Their interview responses were compared against the quantitative data and the observations to determine how they viewed themselves as readers. While the initial interview question attempted to establish their beliefs of self-efficacy in reading material from their next term's English curriculum, these beliefs were specific to this situation as defined by Bong (2003). As the specifications differed and began to include other elements, such as other settings and individuals, they became more indicative of their reader self-concept.

In their initial interviews, most participants generally reported being able to read with varying degrees of competence. Throughout the process their responses to this question became more detailed and positive, suggesting that their responses were true representations of how self-efficacious they thought they would be in reading the passage. Their increasingly positive perceptions of their skill levels coincided with the gradual progression witnessed in their informal and formal, standardised assessments as well as their observations, suggestive of their changing mindsets. However, the inclusion of their peers to reading the English passage scenario changed their reports significantly, suggesting that their reader self-efficacy was specific to reading the material individually. Their inability to generalise their skills to a different setting conveys that their reader self-concepts were low in comparison to their feelings of self-efficacy.

The inclusion of peers to the dynamic also introduced the appraisal process in which the participants' self-perceptions were compared to their views of their peers' skill levels. Initially, the core group members and the tutees expressed their hesitancy to read in front of their peers to varying degrees of firmness. Throughout their stage as tutee, the participants became more confident in their skills and less hesitant to perform these skills in front of their peers, which correlated with their improvement in their performances on

their running records. When comparing their skills to their classmates, their reports showed similar increases in confidence throughout the process.

An exception to this situation was Benji3, whose general responses of adequacy remained stagnant throughout the process. Despite a slight variance, his reports on the four components were fairly consistent to one another and overly confident in comparison to his informal and formal assessment scores and observations. As Ehrlinger et. al. (2016) propose, overconfidence relates to an individual's fixed mindset and the inability to successfully monitor their metacognitive processes. Without the ability to effectively monitor metacognitive processes, Benji3 was not able to detect inconsistencies and determine errors in his decoding or comprehension of the text. Therefore, he believed that he was competently performing the task and that no additional work was necessary, maintaining this level of incompetence.

Even though his informal assessments indicated that he overestimated his reading abilities, they did indicate significant progress, suggesting that he began to decode words with greater success. However, he made very few self-corrections on these assessments. As self-corrections indicate that an individual is self-monitoring the task, this signifies that this increased decoding skills did not extend into his ability to monitor when errors occurred. This was also reflected in his inconsistent scores on the SRS2 (Hagley, 2001). While all of the other participants' performances were similar to their informal assessments and showed progress, Benji3's pre-test was inconsistent with his informal assessments and his post-test. As the SRS2 is designed to assess comprehension skills, these inconsistencies are indicative of the inefficiency to conduct metacognitive processes.

The other participants' assessment scores and their self-perceptions of their skills were consistent, suggesting that they were able to monitor and utilise their metacognitive skills to greater success. However, most of these participants failed to associate their level of importance to the reading process. When questioned regarding their ability to read the text, the participants discussed the text's external qualities, such as font size, or they deconstructed the material to specific words. By decontextualizing the material, they were eliminating the internal, metacognitive processes involved with reading and

focussing on external factors. As these external factors are those that are noticeable to their peers, this suggests that the portions of reading which were visible to others held more significance to them.

As the participants were adolescents, their peers held a significant role in determining their ability levels. They acted as a counterbalance from which the participants compared their skills and deemed their success rate. Although the participants placed their peers in this position of importance, their peers' actual judgements were not taken into account. These comparisons were based on their own perceptions of their peers' skills and the participants' perceptions of how their peers would appraise their skills rather than their peers' actual thoughts (Brown, 1998). Thus, when the participants felt that their skills were lower, they judged themselves as inferior and perceived that their peers' appraisals of their skills were similar. In assuming the role of tutee, most participants perceived that their skills were lower than their peers, resulting in the majority of these participants expressing strong hesitations to read in front of their peers. As they perceived that their skills had progressed, then these participants appraised their skills as being in the "middle" portion of their classes. Despite many of the participants having skills that the standardised assessments suggested were in reality higher than the majority of their classmates, their desire to assimilate with their peers seemed to dictate an average performance as the ideal.

At the beginning and end of Stage 1, the core group members communicated similar comparisons of their skills to their peers as the tutees. After acting as tutors at the end of Stage 2, the core group members' reports changed. In the year they became tutors Codey2b and Daisy2b stayed in their current class placement at the beginning of the next school year and they both stated that they were in the upper portion of their class at the end of the stage. While both participants' standardised scores were above the class's mean score, Codey2b's score was only slightly above. Contrastingly, Amy2b and Becky2b were placed into classrooms with individuals who had performed higher on the end-of-year assessments and these were conveyed in the class titles that had been given to them by the English department. The core group members' responses correlate with the "frog pond effect" first termed by Davis (1966). As an individual determines their skill

levels by comparing themselves to others, the population from which they make these comparisons becomes significant to the conclusions reached.

In their initial interviews, all of the core group members reported that their skill levels were low in comparison to their peers. By the completion of their stage as tutees, they stated that they were in the "middle" or "not the worst" of their classmates. Despite assuming an "expert" role as tutor, Codey2b and Daisy2b remained in the same surroundings. Even though they felt that they had progressed, the population from which to base their comparisons had not changed. This culminated in their classifying their skills as superior.

Contrastingly, when in the role of tutee, Amy2a and Becky2a began to rate themselves as average in comparison to their peers. Then they were placed into different environments with individuals who were seen as having superior skills in comparison to their previous classmates. While Becky2b's new class's title suggested one level of progression to her old class, the new class title of Amy2b signified three levels of progression. The new population from which they based their new comparisons were perceived to have skills far more advanced than those of their previous group. As Becky2b perceived that her new source of comparison was only slightly above, the progress that she experienced during her stage as a tutor concluded in her feeling in the "middle" of this new group. Amy2b declared that her new classmates were far more advanced and she was the "lowest." In reality, a comparison of both of their standardised scores to those in their new classroom conveyed that Amy2b was one of the highest in her group and Becky2b was far above the mean score. Therefore, these higher ability settings led to their lower self-perceptions (Liem, et. al., 2013; Marsh, 2007). As many school systems establish classes based on student performance, a student's progress will naturally lead to their moving into other classroom settings but this can prove detrimental to the development of their self-perceptions due to this "frog pond effect" (Davis, 1966).

Regardless of these few discrepancies, the participants' reports indicated that they had progressed in their willingness to read in front of their peers, their feelings of competence in comparison to their peers and their levels of confidence. This progress was also witnessed in their assessment scores and observed during their running records. While

this change occurred to varying degrees for the participants assuming each role in the process, the alterations that the core group members reported were the most significant. These changes were most substantial in their responses regarding their general reading abilities, suggesting that alterations had occurred to their reader self-concepts and most developed growth mindsets. As an individual's self-concept is less malleable, it takes more time to transform. This meant that is was more probable for the core group members to alter their self-concepts as they had twice as long in the process. Even though Amy2b continued to report the necessity of practice and identified the substantial progress that had occurred, she attributed much of this growth to external forces enabling her to preserve her dyslexic label and her negative view of her abilities to some extent.

Chapter 7- The Relationships

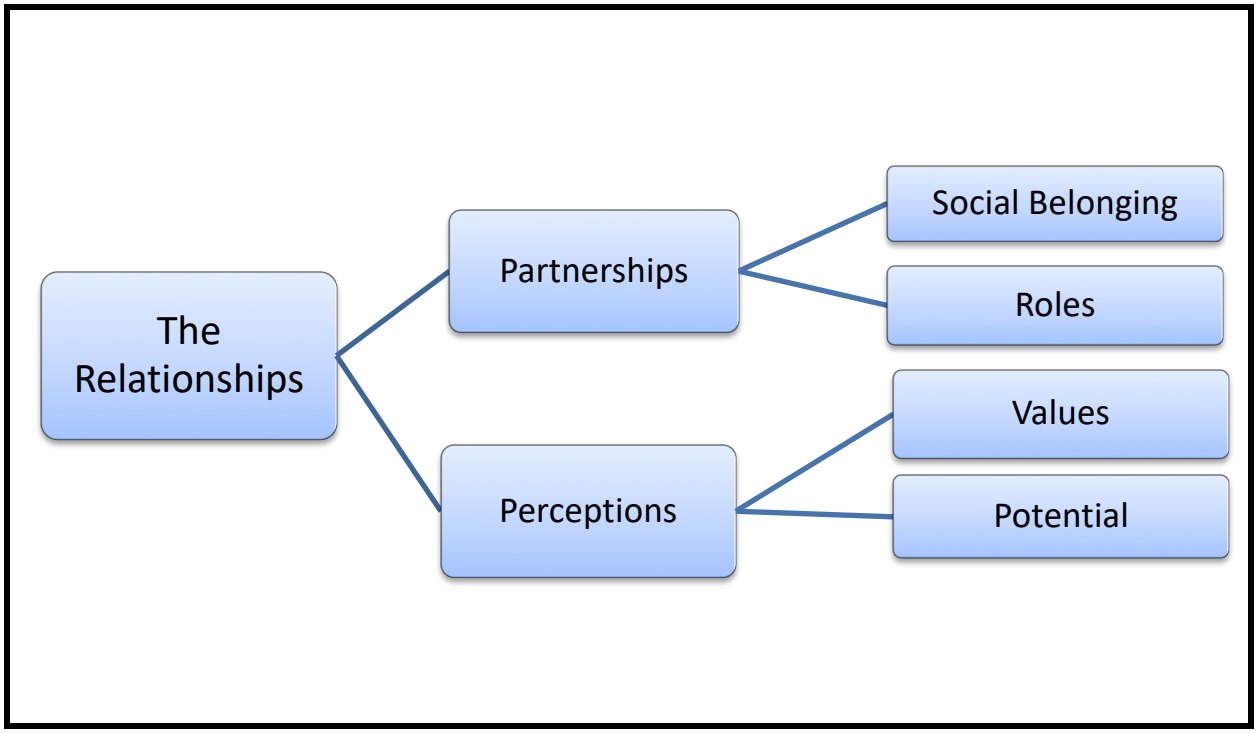


Diagram 5- The Relationships

Comprising this chapter on the relationships are the participants' interactions with one another and their perceptions of themselves and their role in this interaction. While the reader concept encompasses the participants' perceptions of themselves as readers and the influence that their peers had on their development of these perceptions, the relationship concept concentrates on their peer tutoring relationships. In order to understand these interactions and their effects on the individual participant's perceptions, I have utilised data from semi-structured interviews of both the tutor and tutee and recorded observations of the partnerships working together. Informal and standardised assessments offered a reference from which to determine the attainment levels of each member of the partnership and to envisage changes in their reading abilities. The interpersonal section includes the relationships that they developed with their partner and their definitions of each partner's role. The succeeding intrapersonal section encompasses their internalisation of these relationships and its effect on their behaviour.

7.1 Peer Tutoring Partnerships

As discussed in the last chapter, when the participants were initially asked to read a passage in front of their peers, all of their responses were negative and unenthusiastic. This is not surprising as many adolescents are influenced by their peers and by their desires to be socially accepted. As the participants were placed into peer tutoring partnerships, their reactions towards these peers in comparison to their other classmates became significant to the study. As these partnerships were formed to provide instruction of the necessary cognitive aspects of reading, the participants needed to be able to work together. Additionally, these partnerships were constructed to promote positive self-perceptions and engagement with the reading and tutoring process and to counteract any negativity from previous reading experiences. In this section, the partnerships and the participants' perceptions of the roles that comprised these partnerships are explored. I focus on each core member and their relationships with their tutor and tutee to provide a more comprehensive view of the partnerships that evolved and how they were perceived by each other. In addition, this offers a means of examining how the core members' interpersonal relationships altered with a change in their role.

7.1.1 Relationships between Partners

In their initial standardised assessments, Adam1 scored significantly higher than Amy2 although the differences between their actual ages and their reading ages were very similar. Both had medical conditions that they perceived as negatively affecting their reading abilities. Although Adam1 was hesitant to read aloud in his class, he was willing to do so. In contrast, as a tutee, Amy2a was adamant about refusing to read aloud in front of her classmates. In their second interview, Amy2a was asked regarding her initial response to being partnered with Adam1, she iterated, "I get shy in front of new people but as I've got to know him, he's alright." When questioned about her feelings about reading aloud, she responded, "It's okay with him but in class, I would still feel uncomfortable in case I got something wrong." She explained further, "Like he wouldn't judge me and I don't feel silly to get a word wrong in front of him." As Tice and Wallace (2003) propose, perceived appraisals and self-appraisals are closely associated

and initially, this was evidenced in Amy2a's view of her reading skills. Her self-appraisals of her reading skills were low and the appraisals that she perceived that her peers made of her skills were similarly low and could have led to her feeling socially inferior. Her views coincide with "the reflected appraisal process" originally termed by Cooley (1902). However, her relationship with her tutor enabled her to overcome this process. Amy2a felt comfortable with Adam1 and did not feel judged, making her own self-appraisals irrelevant. Without the need for skill comparisons, her focus became her own progress (Hughes, 2014), which informal assessments indicated was increasing. Due to this progress, the English department placed her into a class with students who had performed better on their literacy assessments than her previous class. With this move, she perceived that her peers had advanced skills in comparison to her own and that they appraised her skills as somewhat inferior. Therefore, she readjusted her focus to include these comparisons and self-appraisals, which were somewhat negative. Nevertheless, she was able to read in front of the class because her self-appraisal was not solely comprised of the perceived appraisals of those in her classroom. Now, her focus also included the positivity from the progress that she had experienced and her changing mindset.

When Amy2b and Aaron3 began peer tutoring, they were in the same year group but their formal and informal assessments suggested that his reading attainment level was slightly higher. However, her strengths lay in her reading fluency and increasing confidence, areas in which he experienced difficulties, making her an optimal tutor for him. In addition, this provided me with an opportunity from which to understand the effects that roles had within tutoring partnerships.

Aaron3 shared similar hesitations to Adam1 of reading in front of his classmates. This discomfort was also felt at the prospect of reading with Amy2b. In his second interview, Aaron3 admitted that he was "a bit nervous" to read with his tutor, Amy2b. Although he now described reading to Amy2b as "good," he confirmed that he still preferred to read alone because he was worried that she might laugh at him for making mistakes, implying that he assumed that she was appraising his skills. By the final interview, he was more comfortable and preferred to read in her presence rather than by himself, "Because if I get stuck on a word, or don't know what it means, then she'll help me." This suggests that

he no longer either made or perceived that these appraisals would be negative. As he had experienced success in the intervention, his focus was readjusted to the positive aspect of his success and this success had helped him change to a growth mindset where mistakes were acceptable. In this interview, he also indicated that he would read in front of the class, suggesting that his self-perceptions had become more positive.

In the partnership of Beth1 and Becky2a, Beth1 was three years older than Becky2a. According to their standardised assessments, Beth1 was reading at a standard assumed of a student over two years ahead of Becky2a but this also meant that Beth1 was further behind the reading level proposed for her age by the standardised assessment than her tutee. While Beth1 was insecure about any attempts at reading the English text passage, she was willing to read in front of her peers. Becky2a was adamant that her attempts would be fruitless. Although Becky2a refused to read in front of her English class, she stated, "I like to read but I don't like to read in front of people." Implying that she read with individuals with whom she felt comfortable, she responded, "I can read in front of my mum" and she further specified, "Like Beth1, I can read in front of her." In her second interview, she explained the reasons for her willingness. "She's a girl so she understands. She struggles at reading as well so she understands and stuff." Her repetition of the word "understands" is reflective of the importance having someone whom she deemed as being in a similar situation or at least having been at some point, to herself. Titchovsky (2003) argues about the importance of working with individuals who share similar struggles because working with individuals who have not experienced such hardships can create marginalisation. However, Becky2a's initial mention as to their association being based on gender somewhat detracts from the emphasis that Titchovsky (2003) places on disability being a greater basis for marginalisation. In her subsequent statement, she mentions their similar "struggles" with reading, indicating that feelings of marginalisation can be created by the low-attainment of skills but gender is more strongly associated with cohesion.

In her final interview, Becky2a said, "Um, we're just a really good match. I'm happy that you put Beth and I together…. We just completely bonded straight away." This relationship was also apparent in observations in which they would laugh and discuss their personal lives. Additionally, they often called each other's mobile phones outside

of the session suggesting that their closeness developed into a friendship, rather than just a friendly association inside of the classroom. According to Walton and Cohen (2007), an adolescents' sense of social belonging relates significantly to their academic success and this was reflected in Becky2a and her tutor's friendship and their success.

Unfortunately, the same sense of belonging did not exist between Becky2b and her tutee. As a tutor, Becky2b was partnered with Benji3. They were in the same year group but their informal assessments conveyed that Becky2b was reading at a level almost three years in advance to that of Benji3. According to their initial standardised assessments, they both initiated their roles as tutees on similar reading levels although Benji3 held few reservations to reading in front of his classmates. Unlike Becky2's close relationship with her tutor, Benji3 did not feel that there was this kind of connection. In his second interview he said, "I already knew her from science but she didn't really get on with me well." This implies that Becky2b did not enjoy Benji2's company, whereas he did not object to her presence. Contrary to his perceptions, Becky2b attested to being nervous to become a tutor until she discovered that she would be working with Benji3, suggesting that Benji3's perceptions regarding Becky2b were incorrect.

In this interview, Benji3 also stated that it was "alright" to read with Becky2b and that she was a "good" tutor. Afterwards, he also implied that she enjoyed her position of power. "If she's with her friends, then she kind of shows off. When she's not around them, she's kind of a bit nice to me." On the other hand, Becky2b envisioned these encounters outside of the session differently, "If I like see him and he asks if it's on, I reply and I'm nice to him but we don't really talk otherwise." Additionally, she declared that she had never disclosed her role as a tutor because, "He said that he wasn't going to tell anyone so I haven't told anyone. It's not really any of their business." These contrasting perspectives convey that Benji3 was self-conscious of being in the tutee position and was wary of individuals outside of the session knowing that he was a tutee, which he viewed as an inferior role. Unfortunately, this perception is held by many in society as the tutee role is defined by some as lacking skills in which the tutor is in possession (Miller, et. al., 2010). In addition, Benji3's desire not to discuss the situation with others reveals the stigma often times associated with receiving intervention. As Byers (2012) suggests, intervention methods have a tendency to isolate participants from

their peers. By permitting the participants to stay in their academic lessons, these feelings of isolation were likely reduced. However, their desire not "to tell anyone" alludes to the existence of these feelings of marginalisation at least to some degree.

In addition, Benji3's negative feelings could have been based on having a cross-ability tutor of similar age. Past studies on cross-age tutoring have advised an optimal age difference of two years in order to decrease the likelihood of disputes, personality clashes and resentment (Goodlad & Hirst, 1990; Sharpley & Sharpley, 1981). Even though age could have been the source of some of Benji3's negativity, Amy2b and Aaron3's positive relationship suggest that they are not necessarily accurate. Similarly, Benji3 also confirmed, "I think that sometimes we had our clashes but most of the time it was good." Despite their differences, Becky2b and Benji3's relationship was ultimately positive as they were both engaged and working towards the same goal—academic success. Interestingly, when asked to define the tutee role, Benji3 defined it as "Someone who knows the person really well and isn't a total stranger to the person." This suggests that he envisioned being previously acquainted as an advantage to his role as a tutee and that his initial qualms were based more on his insecurities of being the tutee rather than their relationship. However, they did not create the same social bond, which could have related to Benji3's lack of progress to some extent.

Despite being two year groups higher than Codey2a, the standardised pre-tests indicated that Chloe's reading equivalent age was one month below his. While Codey2a gave mixed reports in regards to reading in front of peers, Chloe1 proposed that her shyness made this difficult. When I asked Chloe1 regarding reading with Codey2a, she stated, "I can read if it's us two but I don't like to if it's more than that." There was an element of comfort and belonging, which was also sensed by Codey2a. He reported, "Like we've done this, so we've become friends doing this." While their relationship was positive and offered them the security necessitated for Chloe1 to feel secure enough to read with him, it also presented some problems. Chloe1 stated, "Like, we got along but then when it came to the reading, we didn't sit down and read. We always got and did things and we didn't always do it properly." Even though their partnership provided Codey2a with a positive literacy mentor that Franzak (2006) dictates as highly significant, it also conveys that having these relationships can act as a distraction from the work. However, Chloe1's

guilt over possibly not utilising their time effectively was not shared by Codey2a who declared, “We’re good at working and things.”

When Codey2b became a tutor, he also built a positive relationship with Conor3, a Year 7 participant whose informal assessment proposed had reading skills almost two years behind those of his tutor. In spite of his dislike of reading in front of others, Conor3 never seemed timid to read in front of Codey2b in observations. In his second interview, Codey2b confirmed this immediate willingness, “He like looked really kind and that. I dunno. It sounds really weird but to me he looked like he was going to be a really nice person.” As he placed his trust in Codey2b and was able to read with him, his confidence was rewarded and he was not concerned to make mistakes with him, unlike his classmates. He stated, “He won’t laugh or make jokes and that.” In the observations, these mistakes were made frequently and Codey2 only offered support. Throughout the sessions, these mistakes became less frequent as Connor3’s skills increased. The observations revealed that they laughed at the content of the book and that they stopped at times to discuss life outside of the sessions. Even though this time seemed misappropriated, it could have allowed a sense of belonging to flourish and given Conor3 the confidence not to worry that Codey2b was judging his skills.

In response to Mercer, Wegerif and Dawes (1999), who dismiss cumulative talk as low-level communication, Maine (2015) conveys that “there is a place for cumulative talk action, where speakers are concerned with ‘getting along’, as it provides the bedrock on which more exploratory, creative co-construction can take place” (p. 102). In his final interview, Connor3 affirmed, “It was good that we got along because if we didn’t, it would be a major issue.” As Connor3 discovered, these relationships are significant to the process. These conversations provide what Maine refers to as “a social cohesion,” and are necessary for successful partnerships between peers. As adolescents place particular emphasis on social groups, an assurance regarding their “getting along” with their peers needs to be established and they are necessary for a positive atmosphere where the participants feel comfortable to make the mistakes that practising and improving their skills requires.

In Morrison et. al.’s study (2000), low-attaining students and their high-attaining reading

tutors, who were two school years older, concluded in friendship and positive feelings towards reading but no skill improvement. Even though trusting relationships are significant to reading tutoring partnerships, they do not equate to higher levels of reading attainment and can actually act as a means of avoiding the work. Codey2 exemplified this condition in both partnerships. According the interview with his tutor and observations, Codey2 was frequently involved with cumulative talk action that culminated in his reading skill increase being less than the other core group members. Nevertheless, this type of communication might have been necessary for him to overcome any of his insecurities and feel comfortable enough to focus on his learning.

During this cumulative talk, the participants also discussed their previous negative experiences with reading, which added to these feelings of social cohesion and trust. When individuals have previously felt marginalised, this social cohesion is necessary to develop confidence and to counteract any previous issues. In the last partnership, Dani1, a Year 9 girl, was placed with Daisy2a, a Year 7 girl. According to their standardised assessments, Dani1's reading age equivalency was two years ahead of that of Daisy2a. While Dani1's shyness made her reluctant to perform any skills in front of her peers, Daisy2a's hesitancy only pertained to reading. In observations, Dani1 and Daisy2a read to each other but they did not converse. Gradually, their laughter and social conversations increased. Dani1 declared that reading with Daisy2a was "good" and she sensed that Daisy2a shared these positive sentiments. Upon considering the difference between reading with each other and other individuals, Dani1 proposed that this security evolved from both partners experiencing difficulties with reading at some point. She explained Daisy2a's ability to read with her, "Because I've been like her in that and she's comfortable to read in front of me."

Even though De Naeghal and his colleagues (2014) declare that relatedness can promote intrinsic motivation as individuals enjoy and initiate experiences to work with individuals with whom they enjoy working, it can also lead to negative outcomes. As low-attaining readers often times have negative views of reading, this could lead to the perpetuation of this negativity.

Even though the participants' connection made it possible for them to read with one another, it also led to their beliefs that they would relate in all areas associated with reading. Dani1 declared, "We just understood each other." When I probed for her clarification, Dani1 expounded, "She said that she didn't really like reading and I don't really like reading. So we understood each other there." Daisy2a's sentiments were rather different. In contrary to what Dani1 had supposed, Daisy2a indicated that she enjoyed reading, therefore Dani1's view of Daisy2a's opinions towards reading were incorrect. Relatedness also correlates with the desire to build trusting relationships with reading mentors. As students relate in one area, they begin to expect that these commonalities will exist in all aspects of this area. Dani1 and Daisy2a's previous struggles with reading validated these feelings. When this trust evolves, students are able to trust each other with information, such as their own weaknesses and dislikes, that they might not feel comfortable sharing with other individuals.

As Daisy2b assumed the role of the tutor, she was partnered with Dawn3, whose informal assessments indicated had a reading level above that of Daisy2b. Dawn3 held similar fears of reading with her peers as she did for reading with her tutor in the beginning, "I was quite nervous but I started to get used to it." According to observations, her timidity was short-lived and they soon began chatting and laughing. In her second interview, Dawn3 pronounced that she preferred reading with Daisy2 than reading independently. They also both proposed their enjoyment for reading, suggesting their feelings of relatedness.

In all of their responses, there was an underlying sense of the value that they associated with becoming proficient readers. Unfortunately, previous experiences with reading had meant that most did not identify themselves as having the skills required to attain proficiency. They predicted that their skill deficiency would lead to further negative outcomes and were reluctant to read in front of their peers and to face their appraisals of their skills. Similarly, many of the participants expressed a hesitation to read in front of their tutor in their initial interviews. This hesitancy is common for individuals with fixed mindsets who avoid any potential situation that could reveal their incompetence. In subsequent interviews and observations, these hesitations diminished and by their final interviews, they preferred to read with their tutor. As this also correlated with increases

in their levels of attainment and their comments regarding their progression, this is indicative of their having developed growth mindsets and feelings of belonging.

According to Dweck and her colleagues (2014), a sense of belonging is a successful intervention method to alter perceptions of intelligence. By providing them with a reading mentor and peers who had experienced these same frustrations, they were given an atmosphere more conducive to making mistakes. They were also given a role model who had experienced the change that they felt that they could realistically emulate. With the utilisation of different methods, they were able to achieve a level of relatedness with their peers in this new environment. The participants no longer feared their peers' appraisals of their skills and they were able to visualise that their skills could progress and focus on putting forward the effort to make this a reality. In this positive environment, they were afforded experiences from which to replace the former negative ones.

7.1.2 Defining Roles

As the participants were placed into different roles within these partnerships and these stayed consistent throughout the stage, they were similar to Topping's (2005) definition of cross-age peer tutoring. Cross-age tutoring is predicated on the tutors having expertise that the tutees do not (Graesser, et. al., 2011). Thus, cross-age peer tutoring also suggests that the tutee is lacking in these skills that the tutor is proficient. In this study, this 'expertise' was based on the tutors having received this type of teaching previously, rather than advanced age or reading attainment level. As this type of relationship mirrors that of a teacher and student, it could lead to an enactment of this relationship and an assumption that the tutor is the expert of the subject area. Such assumptions could have reinforced any perceptions of inadequacy and instigated feelings of resentment between the partners. Additionally, this assumption could have created a sense that a tutor has acquired an expert standing and that they could and did not need to develop their skills further. As the participants assumed these different roles, it was interesting to see how they viewed and acted out these roles and what it revealed about their perceptions of their

own levels of reading attainment. This concept of role was especially significant in the members of the core group whose role changed between phases.

In his second interview, Adam1 described his role in his partnership with Amy2a.

> If she gets something wrong, then I'll tell her it but I won't be narcissistic or tell her that she's dumb. Because she's not. I just need to help her build herself up more and give her more confidence.

Despite his negation of the terms, the words "narcissistic" in association to himself and "dumb" in reference to Amy2a suggests an underlying feeling of his being more advanced than his tutee. He also implied that she is the one that "gets something wrong" and his role was to be a helper, builder and giver. Even though these are teacher-like characteristics, he never referred to reading skills as the end product, rather he proposed confidence as being the overall objective. When he was asked regarding what made someone a good tutor, he said, "confidence." Upon defining the characteristics of a good tutee, he referred to someone who "listens, asks questions, wants to learn, wants to get better themselves so they get more confident." His words "learn" and "get better" suggest that he felt the tutee role was to grow cognitively and emotionally but he included himself in this need for development, suggesting his growth mindset. Additionally, his words refer to both tutee and tutor being active participants in this pursuit of learning. As learning became the goal, they were not hindered by the definitions of tutoring that society had instilled where one individual was more advanced than the other. Instead, they became partners in the acquisition of knowledge.

Upon being asked regarding how a tutor could build this confidence he indicated that through a relationship of trust and "not laughing at them" as well as by asking questions. "We kept asking lots of questions. I think that's what helped us the best. She learned a lot from just asking the questions." His words indicate that he was also asking questions and being helped, suggesting that this relationship was reciprocal and knowledge was shared and acted upon in transactional dialogue. However, observations revealed that

these transactions were generally limited to answer and reply rather than knowledge-building conversations.

> Adam1: Stop right there for a minute. What do you think has happened so far?
> Amy2a: Well they're searching for Teresa but they haven't found her yet.
> Adam1: Yeah.

Similar to this transaction, Adam1 generally asked a question pertaining to one of the four types of scaffolding comprehension questions first proposed by Palincsar and Brown (1984). Amy2a provided short low-level replies and Adam1 responded with whether her answer was accurate. Although these transactions were generally low-level, they indicated that comprehension monitoring was occurring, an act that De Milliano, et. al. (2016) found was crucial for the progression of low-attaining individuals. In the tutoring role, he was required to learn these strategies and employ them frequently during the sessions. Their frequent use likely led them to become internalised and automatic when he read in the sessions or by himself.

Similarly, Amy2a also envisioned a tutor as "a helper" but she saw them as assisting only with sounding out words, correlating with the view she had of reading as merely words. She also suggested that a tutee's role was a "listener," a far more passive role than the active learner that Adam1 proposed. Although Amy2a inferred that one of these roles was advanced in knowledge and skills, she envisioned that her role with Adam1 was far more equal. When she was asked regarding how they worked together, she stated, "we helped each other. Because if I knew a word that he didn't, then I would tell him the word. And then, if I didn't know a word, then he would tell me the word." Whilst Amy2a viewed the tutee role as inferior, she saw herself as more of an equal in their active pursuit of knowledge. In observations, Adam1 was frequently assisting Amy2a to sound out particular words and asking her questions (see Appendix I). At first, these corrections were frequent. Although these mistakes gradually lessened throughout the stage, there was never an occasion where Amy2a assisted Adam1. On one occasion, Adam1 asked for my assistance in understanding a new word's pronunciation and meaning. Therefore, Amy2's perceptions of equality were based more on feelings of trust and relatedness with an individual who had also struggled at some point and portray

that she did not feel marginalised or invaluable in this relationship. She felt like she was performing a valuable role. They also signify that Adam1's goal to increase her confidence had been realised as she perceived herself as being capable of assisting an individual that was more advanced in age and was in the expert role.

When Amy2b exchanged roles and became the tutor, she delineated a tutor's responsibilities from helping to sound out words to "guid[ing] the tutee, the other person, to help them with what they need help with." Upon being questioned regarding her performance of this role, she reported that she was a "good" tutor "because I didn't just do what I wanted. It was like what he wanted and how I could help him." Although the standardised assessments proposed that Aaron3's reading level was higher than that of Amy2b, she saw herself in the expert role. When questioned in regards to which role she preferred, she pronounced:

> ALW: How was it being the tutor this time instead of the tutee?
> Amy2b: It's hard because when I read, I'm a really fast reader and he's like slow. It's good because you're helping someone.
> ALW: Have you felt like you've helped and he's getting better?
> Amy2b: I do because he's sped up his reading more and he's getting less words wrong than he did at the beginning.

This suggests that Amy2b's feelings of being more advanced also extended to her fluency and her class set, despite having a lower reading age level than Aaron3 on informal and formal, standardised assessments. Amy2b's feelings were based on society's perception of the tutor role and indicate that she felt the tutor was proficient in skills in which the tutee was lacking (Graesser et. al., 2011). Even though her original definition of a good reader was one where they could break down the words, observations indicated that Aaron3 was more proficient in this area. Thus to maintain her expert status, she made it contingent on fluency, the observable skill where she showed proficiency.

The inferiority of the role of tutee was also apparent as she defined the tutee's role as being able "to listen to the tutor." In contrast to her interview as tutee, she added, "To hopefully improve," which implies that she saw this more than just a passive role. The

tutee should be invested in their learning. Similarly, Aaron3 referred to a tutee being a listener but he thought that was the sole responsibility of the tutee role. Both of these responses place the tutee into a more passive and inferior role to that of the tutor.

Interestingly, Aaron3 defined a good tutor as "always knowing what the word means" and "being able to read quite quick but not too quick so they can understand." These skills correlate to the skills in which Amy2b was proficient. In observations, Amy2b had difficulties sounding out words and Aaron3 had to assist her at times but she read quickly. She also frequently stopped and probed Aaron3 for the meaning of particular words to assist his comprehension. As she was in the role perceived to be the expert, they then associated the skills in which she excelled as those significant in being a tutor.

Contrary to these statements, they both indicated that their actual roles were far more equal and that they had a successful partnership. On identifying what made the partnership successful, Aaron3 stated, "That we both understood, that if someone made a mistake, the other person could fill in the mistake." Likewise, Amy2b characterised them as being "a team." When asked, she responded, "Like if he needed help, like in like the book, if I couldn't read a word and he could, then he would tell me. If he couldn't read the word that I knew, then I would tell him." In their partnership, camaraderie developed as they were both working towards the same goal (Kennedy, 1990; Sutherland & Snyder, 2007) and they both valued their part in reaching this goal. Social belonging is particularly significant to adolescents (Ehrlinger, et. al., 2016) and academically disengaged and low-attaining students gradually become more alienated as they begin secondary school (Dweck, et. al., 2014). However, observations and interviews indicated that this was not the case for the participants. As the tutors and tutees were both actively regulating each other's reading performance and utilising this information to develop and reach this goal, they both played critical roles in each other's reading development, leading to their feelings of belonging. Anderman (2003) states that "students reported a greater sense of school belonging when they perceived their academic tasks as interesting, important and useful" (p. 18), suggesting that the participants also valued the task and their role in performing it. Therefore, peer tutoring provided an opportunity for the participants to become engaged and increase levels of reading attainment, likely leading to feelings of social belonging.

When the core group members assumed the tutor role, their behaviour reveals that their perceptions of their value increased even more. Amy2b was more authoritative in her role. Unlike her observations with Adam1 where he constantly asked for her preferences and merely made suggestions, Amy2b generally directed Aaron3's movements. While Adam1 would make queries regarding whether she wished to read or listen to him read, Amy2b was far more assertive in determining when and the duration that each partner should read. Although they both assisted each other during reading when either made a mistake, Aaron was quite passive and often just followed directions. As Aaron3 was both chronologically older and more competent according to standardised tests than Amy2b, their roles and the perceptions that they had of these roles determined their behaviour. Admittedly, this could be a reflection, or at least in part, of their personalities but their vocalisation of tutor roles signifies that they at least associated Amy2b's strengths as the skills that made an individual a reading expert and their actions corroborated these responses.

In contrast, Beth1 and Becky2a envisioned these roles somewhat differently. While Beth1 defined a tutor as "someone that helps the person and like tries their best to understand them," Becky2a summarised the role's significance revolving around the tutor's ability to establish a relationship with their tutee. This supports Franzak's (2006) advice regarding the need for all individuals, especially in their adolescence, to have caring and social relationships with a reading mentor. Additionally, their definition of a good tutor also reflects on the type of partnership that they developed.

Along with a tutor's sympathetic view of their tutee, Beth1 indicated that there is an element of authority. "You have to tell them if they've done it wrong though so they can like learn from what they've done." This definition also denotes that the tutor needs to teach and provide negative feedback to enable the tutee to improve, displaying her assuming a more teacher-like role. In terms of the tutee, Beth1 designated their responsibilities as "listening" and "respecting" the tutor. These words suggest that a good tutee should almost be submissive to the tutor, like a student to a teacher. Similar to Amy2 and Aaron3, Beth1 developed role definitions that correlated with the individuals who were assuming those roles.

For Becky2a, these roles were designated by the drive for improvement. Therefore, tutors "need to get us at the level where we need to be at the moment . . . They need to have the strength to help me. If I don't understand something, they have to explain it." According to Becky2a's explanation, it is necessary for the tutor to meet the tutee's needs and demands and assume this teacher role. While this symbolises the tutor's dominance, it almost makes them responsible for ensuring that the tutee improves. Contrastingly, Becky2a, in the role of tutee, advised that a good tutee should, "Concentrate. Be yourself. And try your hardest." Her utilisation of these terms signifies a tutee's role as actively aspiring to reach their potential.

According to observations, Beth1 frequently assisted Becky2a in her reading but she, like Adam1, always requested Becky2a's preferences. These observations never revealed Becky2a helping Beth1 but on one occasion, they attempted to sound out a difficult word together. Upon discussing their partnership, they both felt that they and their partner had successfully met the criteria that they had set to define their role, implying that there was a level of inequality in their relationship. This distinction did not seem apparent in their partnership. Becky2a proposed, "[Beth] wanted to get better at reading and so did I, so we made a rule that we had to get to our targets and stuff. If we don't, we'd just keep on doing it then." These sentiments were also shared by Beth1 who stated, "We both come from that stage of reading." At some point, they had experienced difficulties with reading and had assumed the role of tutee. This common background promoted a sense of equality and enabled both to feel like a team aspiring for success, which was increased by shared focus on learning.

When Becky2b assumed the tutor role, her perceptions of the role altered. She declared, "I think that I should teach everything that I know and that I learnt when I was one of them." Instead of the tutor being centred on the tutee, the repetition of the word "I" suggests that her role was dominant. Her utilisation of "them" symbolises that she felt that there was a separation between them and the verbs "teach," "know" and "learnt" indicates a level of expertise. However, the reference to her previous tutee position reveals that these feelings of expertise derived from her participation in the intervention rather than a belief that her reading skills were better. Becky2b also amended the duties of the tutee "Just like to concentrate and make sure like they're getting it," whereas

previously she proposed that the tutor held responsibility for ensuring the tutee's comprehension of the task. Although her division of responsibilities had changed, the overall purpose and the measurement of success remained consistent. Upon determining whether she had met her responsibilities as a tutor, she stated that their partnership was successful as both had "gone up." Similar to Beth1, she was attempting to improve along with her tutee. In observations, this level of equality was not evident. Becky2b offered immediate corrections to Benji3's mistakes and she focussed on specific aspects of the decoding instruction, such as spelling (see Appendix J). As Becky2 is more assertive, the requests that she posed to Benji3 often seemed abrupt and authoritative, the opposite to Beth1's behaviour as a tutor.

Similarly, Benji3 envisaged that a good tutor understood "what your disabilities are in reading and what your spelling's like and that." This is very indicative of the role that Becky2b had been performing as a tutor, which signifies that he, like many of the other participants, had developed a definition based on his tutor. His definition of a good tutee had also arisen from his perceptions of his own role in this relationship. He defined a tutee as "someone who knows the person really well and isn't a total stranger to the person. And they have other people that they know around them to help them." The words "disabilities" and "help" imply the inferiority of the tutee and suggest that the tutor has skills that the tutee lacks. As Benji3 perceived that Becky2b, as the tutor, had a role superior to his own, their similarity in age could promote his feelings of inferiority and devalue his role in the partnership. When questioned about his feelings regarding having Becky2b as a tutor, Benji3 was generally positive.

AHW: How do you feel about her as a tutor?

Benji3: She's good.

AHW: Why would you say that she's good?

Benji3: Because she knows what stage that I'm at with my reading.

AHW: How does that make you feel to know that last term she was being tutored by someone else?

Benji3: I feel secure because I know that she has been in the same process with me to the stranger, like an older student. Cause she's thirteen and I'm twelve so… Well, I think that she's thirteen.

As I did not introduce the topic, Benji3's reference to age implies its significance to him and correlates with the past studies' suggestion of maintaining a two-year age difference in cross-ability tutoring partnerships to reduce resentment (Goodlad & Hirst, 1990; Sharpley & Sharpley, 1981). Despite only being two months older and both being twelve at the time of this interview, his assumption that Becky2 was "thirteen" when he was twelve portrays his belief of a year age difference. This year age difference is more conducive of her being in a position, which they seemed to view as being more advanced. In addition, Becky2a having been tutored by an "older" student also made this level of expertise tolerable because her skills had actually been acquired by working with an older, and therefore more advanced, benefactor. Her being in the role of tutee also made him feel "secure" in this relationship. As she had been a tutee, he could assign any expertise to her previous participation in the intervention rather than an advanced level of skill.

Contrastingly, Chloe1 viewed a tutor's role to the tutee as "being able to talk to them so they feel comfortable and congratulate them if they're doing well and stuff." Additionally, these vocalisations of acceptance and praise by the tutor have been linked to an increase in their tutee's self-perceptions (Fantuzzo & Ginsburg-Block, 1998). Ideally, she thought that a tutor and tutee would be "sitting talking about what's going on and understanding what's going on." This is somewhat revelatory of her idealistic tutoring partnership being one of equality where deeper-levelled reading elements such as comprehension could occur. While Chloe1's ideal situation included comprehension, the other participants proposed exemplar roles based the more apparent elements of reading, such as decoding.

According to Chloe1's reports, her partnership with Codey2a did not meet these expectations. While the other participants' actual partnerships were more balanced than their descriptions of model partnerships, Chloe1's statements indicated the opposite. She stated, "He just didn't like listen as well." Although she revealed that they "got along," she did not feel like they did the work "properly." Upon further queries in regards to the word "properly," Chloe1 exposed Codey2a's tendency to get up due to the possible disinterest or a lack of motivation. Hall (2006) finds that this disinterested or "lazy"

behaviour is commonly utilised by students to remove themselves from difficult situations that might cause them embarrassment. However, as Codey2a's tendency to arise was generally between the decoding and reading sections, it suggests that he was not escaping from a situation where he might show his skills to be inferior. As the realities of their relationship did not meet her ideal standards, Chloe1 was frustrated. In her interview, she assigned this frustration to each partner's weaknesses at carrying out their roles. Codey2a did not fulfil the tutee's role to listen, whereas initially she did not consistently promote his learning. She stated, "I didn't let him figure out what the word meant. If he didn't understand a word, I'd just read it to him." Along with their weaknesses, she also proposed that they each had strengths, such as their ability to communicate and his ability to sound out words. According to the observations, Chloe1's statements are accurate depictions of their sessions. Their discussions mainly revolved around decoding words rather than understanding the content of the novel and Codey2a's contributions were minimal. Interestingly, this suggests that Chloe1's focus in the session changed from the more abstract and meaningful component of comprehension to decoding.

However, Codey2a perceived their roles and their actual fulfilment of these roles quite differently. Although a tutor was someone who "helps," "can help," and "be nice," a tutee "gets it all done and does it well and learns from it." In his description of a tutor, Codey2a repeats the word "helps," emphasising the tutor as the individual with the skills who assists the less able other. Contrastingly, the utilisation of "done" and "does" suggests that the tutee is the active individual in the relationship. These defined roles are far less equal in their levels of ability and participation.

Additionally, Codey2a recounted that their attempts in fulfilling these roles were far more successful than Chloe1 communicated. When Chloe1 "helped" him, he stated, "She wasn't bossy or anything." This assistance usually occurred on occasions that he "got the word wrong, then she would help you with it," suggesting that Chloe's frustrations regarding her own failings as a tutor were not shared by Codey2a. Codey2a also declared, "I got the sheet done first and got that all done and over with. Then, we got on with reading the book." Again, Codey2a's declarations do not reveal any perceived shortcomings in his fulfilment of the tutee role. Observations exposed that they were

distracted at transition times (see Appendix K). As these distractions were short, they signify that Chloe1 possibly set an unrealistic standard for her partnership, which led to her frustration. They also indicate that Codey2a was either satisfied with his attempts or only wanted to report what he felt I, as the interviewer, wanted to hear. Similar to Chloe1, he conveyed that in an ideal situation, "they'd be talking about the book." Despite his feelings that they were successful, an exemplar relationship would be based on more cognitive and comprehension activities, unlike their lower-levelled focus on decoding.

When Codey2b became a tutor, his perceptions remained consistent to those he held when he was a tutee. Although he now envisioned an exemplar tutor as not merely helping the tutee, he defined them as being "in their boots before you're going to be a tutor." His definition of the ideal tutor adjusted to include his own qualities, signifying that he highly esteemed his own contribution as a tutor. However, he felt that his role of tutor derived from his previous participation rather than any skill expertise. When asked regarding whether his own performance as a tutor fulfilled these roles, he affirmed his success, "Because I helped Connor3 out and we had fun doing it." Although his employment of the words "helped out" show that he was the more able in the partnership, they are casual references such as one would use in reference to a friend and "we had fun" also implies a close relationship. This denotes the caring and social relationship that this represented for Codey2b.

Along with his previous definition of a tutee as an actively improving individual, he adapted this to include listening. As his role changed, his perspective of these roles also altered. This is indicative of his new role as the tutor and the individual desiring to be heard. When questioned regarding Conor3's success in this role, he declared, "He listened when I said that we had to do this so we could get on and finish." In this declaration, "he listened" and "I said" symbolises his assuming the teacher role in their relationship but "we could get on," suggests that they were working together to complete a mutual goal. Unlike the students in Sutherland and Snyder's (2007) study who envisioned their goal as the development of both of their skills, Codey2b was not working towards developing his own skills. His comments regarding development only pertained to Conor3's skills, suggesting that his goal and motivation were altruistic.

From Conor3's perspective, Codey2b promoted fun by adapting the tasks to Conor3's needs. Conor3 described, "When I was doing my timed test we done a competition to see who done it first and that helped me." Interestingly, Codey2b, who was reported as being disinterested at times by his tutor, discovered new ways to motivate and engage his tutee, correlating with the benefits of utilising tutors who have experienced similar difficulties previously (Fitz-Gibbon, 2006). These benefits include their patience and slower-pace in teaching scenarios in comparison to those who have never experienced such struggles. Codey2b's previous experiences as a tutee, along with his difficulties with the cognitive and emotional processes of reading, enabled him to construct methods to assist someone with similar issues. He was actively assessing his tutee's attainment of the material and identifying ways to increase these skills, which also further engaged and required his cognitive skills.

Similar to Chloe1, Dani1 also defined the tutoring relationship as one based more on equality. In her interview, Dani1 described the different roles.

> Dani1: Helping them to, I don't know. Listening to them. If they didn't understand something, then helping them.
> AHW: What do you feel makes a good tutee?
> Dani1: I don't know. If you were stuck, then they could help you as well, like in pronouncing a word. And I don't know, listen to what you say and keep it in consideration.

In Dani1's description of a tutor, she employed the verbs of "listening" and "understanding," which signifies her view of the tutor's more sympathetic role. She also repeated the verb "helping," suggesting that she had the skills to perform this role, whereas her frequent use of the phrase, "I don't know," also signifies her insecurity in fulfilling this role. Although these statements are somewhat suggestive of her greater level of skill, her definition of the tutee exposes the imperfections of the tutor as they can get "stuck." Her indication that tutees must also "help" their tutors suggests that they were equal and shared similar difficulties to their tutee. Although the phrase "listen to what you say" also promotes a view of the tutee's inferiority, "keep it in consideration" implies the respect that should exist in the relationship. When

discussing their partnership, this equality was shown as Dani1 portrayed, “We helped each other.” Observations indicated that Dani1 regularly assisted Daisy2a but did not indicate that Daisy2a ever assisted Dani1. Dani’s perception of her equal position and ability to her tutee seem contradictory to Miller and his associates’ (2010) reports that tutors have skills that the tutee is lacking which has the ability to increase the tutor’s feelings of self-worth.

However, standardised assessments indicated that Dani1’s attainment levels were further behind her peers than Daisy2a and Dani1 was much more apprehensive to read in front of her peers which could be an indication that her feelings of worth had increased but the larger attitudinal gap that increases with age between higher and lower attaining individuals (Clark, 2011; PIRLS, 2006) made these feelings of self-worth insurmountable. Unlike all of the other participants who reported enjoying reading more, Dani1 stayed consistent in her negative reports of the activity and she rarely read at home. Therefore, Dani1 never had the sufficient positive experiences that Burns (1982) and Tesser (2003) dictate as being critical to negate her past and to alter her reader self-image. When she assumed the role of a tutor, she did not envision herself as having skills that the tutee lacked. Her role as a reading tutor was not sufficient on its own to increase her self-perceptions.

Meanwhile, Daisy2a’s perceptions of their roles within the relationship were the opposite. On defining the tutor’s role, she declared, “If you struggle on a word or something, then they can break it up for you and sound it out.” This suggests that the tutee struggles and the tutor assists, portraying the tutoring relationship depicted by Graesser et. al. (2011) of the tutor having skills that the tutee lacks. Her description of a tutee included the verbs “listen” and “behave.” These actions are suggestive of tutor assuming a teacher-like authoritative role. In observations, Dani1 and Daisy2a alternated reading a set number of pages that they had specified previously. Dani1 did not elicit commands for Daisy2a to follow. When asked regarding her own partnership, Daisy2a stated, “We worked as a team together. Like she’d break it down, if I got stuck.” The verbs “worked” and “break” show their active engagement with the process as well as strategy that they could employ when needed. The words “we,” “team” and “together” denote a trusting relationship but Daisy2a positioned herself as the one getting “stuck”

and needing assistance. This further contradicts Dani1's statements of equality, indicating that her perceptions of her skills were underestimated and inaccurate.

When Daisy2b changed roles, her definitions of the tutor as the individual who "helps" and the tutee as the individual who "struggles" did not alter. She continued to view the tutor in a teacher-like role and she enjoyed assuming this position. Upon being questioned regarding which role she preferred, Daisy2b, smiling wryly, expressed her preference for the tutor role, and joked, "Because you can tell them what to do." Similar to her previous partnership, they agreed to alternate reading every two pages and Daisy2b rarely made requests to Dawn3. Therefore, she may have mentally ascribed authority to the position but it was not overtly employed. Offering an additional reason for her preference, she pronounced, "You're not just sitting there reading." As Daisy2b was reading the same amount in this new role, the difference lay in her assuming the role of responsibility, necessitating the constant need to regulate and monitor for comprehension. According to observations, Daisy2b offered correction to Dawn3 when she hesitated but the reverse never occurred despite informal assessments suggesting that Dawn3 was able to decode words with greater accuracy (see Appendix L). This would signify that Daisy2b felt at ease in her new role being out of the spotlight and did not make mistakes or they did not assume that the tutor made errors. Therefore, they were not a focus.

According to the literature in my review, peer tutoring is either viewed as a cross-age or ability relationship between an individual with skills assisting and individual without skills or a same-age relationship of equality. As discussed in Chapter 4, many of the partnerships were not characteristic of either. The tutor role was assigned to those who had participated in the intervention previously and were knowledgeable of the structure regardless of their age or their reading attainment level. However, the participants' actions and words indicated that they viewed these roles differently. The role of tutor was generally perceived as one of expertise with the function of giving help, a role that society portrays as worthwhile (Miller, et. al., 2010). In comparison, the tutee was viewed as the individual requiring their tutor's help, a position that Miller et. al. (2010) reports that society deems as inferior. In order to uphold these notions of superiority, the tutees assigned different characteristics to the role of tutor, which were specific to the core group member that had become their tutor. When assuming the role of tutor, the

core group members seemed to thrive on these feelings of their supremacy and they utilised authoritative means to maintain these disproportionate roles. Contrastingly, when in the role of tutor, all of the participants discussed their skills developing further, indicating that did not assume that they were reading experts. They felt that they had progressed but they still wanted to learn more and further develop their skills.

Even though the disproportionate definition that many have given to cross-age tutoring could be seen as potentially detrimental (Graesser, et. al., 2011; Miller, et. al., 2011), it could have proven beneficial to the tutor and tutee relationships in this study. It was the assignment of these roles that mattered, not the supposed expertise for which they were assigned. The relationship between teacher and student is one that students have had years to observe. Thus, the assignment of these roles could have provided an accessible model with guidelines for each partner to follow. With this structure in force, they were then able to focus on learning rather than trying to understand what their role and relationship should look like. They became active partners in their quest to learn and were able to regulate the success of their efforts in acquiring this knowledge.

7.2 Altering Perceptions

As the study aims to explore any change in self-perceptions, it is necessary to consider the changes that their relationship with their partner had created in their thoughts and perceptions of themselves. Thus, the intrapersonal conceptions that evolved from these tutoring relationships are significant and must be analysed. These partnerships were based on both partners' struggles with reading. As all of the participants were performing at reading levels below their peers according to standardised assessments, most were not confident to read in front of others. By utilising participants in both roles who had lower than average reading levels, this provided opportunities for the participants to receive instruction in situations where they would not be marginalised. In the interviews, the intrapersonal theme of these partnerships evolved in two different areas-- the relationships that the participants developed and the value that they thought that they brought to these relationships. Their partners also served as models to help

them to perceive themselves and their abilities differently. In this section, these two subthemes are categorised into perceptions of value and potential.

7.2.1- Perceptions of Value

In the partnerships, each participant had a role. The participants based their value on their effectiveness in fulfilling this role. Most tutors envisioned their role as having the skills to help their tutee to progress, a role that society portrays as worthwhile (Miller, et. al., 2010). The tutee role perceived by most tutees was to adhere to this advice and progress. In the final interview, Adam1 described his role as a tutor:

> AHW: Describe how it was to be a tutor.
> Adam1: It was really fun. (Smiles and laughs.)
> AHW: How was it fun?
> Adam1: I got to change someone's life, see them get more confident, improve their reading and improve their future hopefully.

Adam1's statement indicates the level of responsibility that he felt being a tutor and the enjoyment that he derived from seeing his partner improve. In the phrase, "I got to change someone's life," he accredits himself and his efforts to his tutee's progress. As he defined his role as being able to increase her confidence, the phrase "see them get more confident" suggests that he had been very effective in his role. He deemed his reading abilities as sufficient enough to alter another individual's life. His positive concept of his reading abilities denotes his having a positive reader self-concept.

According to standardised assessments, Adam1's level of reading attainment was on a higher level than Amy2a but this was not reflected in her perceptions of her own value. She portrayed them as a team "because we helped each other" and this assistance was mutually given. Amy2a stated, "Because if I knew a word that he didn't, then I would tell him the word. And then, if I didn't know a word, then he would tell me the word." In observations, Adam1 frequently helped Amy2a while reading but she never offered him assistance. She perceived that her abilities were sufficient to aide Adam1 and that she was valuable to their partnership. In both of her roles, Amy2b indicated that she

was a member of a "team" and they provided support to each other when either made a mistake. It was no longer a competitive environment, meaning that she did not form comparisons of her skills to those of her partners. Previously, mistakes were something to be avoided. As an active learner, they had become a valuable part of the learning process. Thus, she persisted reading despite her frequent errors, suggesting that she no longer viewed them as failures. Even though this change could be in part to the use of ipsative assessments that concentrate on individual progress (Hughes, 2014), her equal concentration on her partner and learning outcomes could also be suggestive of aspects of her changing mindset towards learning.

Upon becoming a tutor, she expressed her enjoyment for the new role, "It was good because, I don't know why, but I was helping someone." This also alludes to her positive contribution to the partnership but the words "I don't know why" could suggest that she either did not know why helping someone promoted these good feelings or how she was helping him. Aaron3 also identified that he assigned value to his role, "We both understood, that if someone made a mistake, the other person could fill in the mistake." Despite their different roles, they both saw themselves as making important contributions to their success. These contributions were exemplified in their monitoring of each other's reading skills and offering immediate feedback, which highlighted their continual progression towards their goals and placed them into the position of control.

In her second interview, Beth1 reflected on her partnership and declared, "I just liked helping someone and being there for them." This correlates with the tutor's inclination to utilise nurturing behaviour, which leads to social acceptance. As proposed by Zins, Elias and Topping (2003), caring for another individual is perceived as desirable by society. The belief that they were now valued by a society that had once marginalised them seemed to counteract these previous negative sentiments. By assuming a nurturing role, Beth1's perceptions of herself and her ability to assist another increased in positivity. In her final interview, she maintained these sentiments, "I felt like I helped her. I could see that she improved as well like quite a lot." This also suggests that she felt that she had been successful in fulfilling her role, as the amount of her tutee's improvement was substantial. In observations, Beth1 provided frequent assistance to Becky2a but the

reverse was not witnessed. These frequent corrections provided Beth1 with the opportunities to execute her tutor duties and to feel valued, whereas Becky2a never mentioned her contribution to the partnership.

When she assumed the tutor role, Becky2b quickly described her feelings of worth. In her second interview in the second stage, she proclaimed, "It makes me feel happy that I've taught him and he's learning a lot." The words, "I've taught him" signify her sense of ownership over Benji3's increasing levels of attainment. These sentiments continued into her final interview. She stated, "He told me stuff that he didn't really understand and I helped him through it. And I felt really proud of myself." Again, Becky2b utilised word pairs, such as taught-learning and didn't understand-helped, that depict a teacher-student relationship. Despite being in the same year group, the value generated from her tutor role was not diminished as she had plenty of opportunities to help him and implement her role. According to the observations, Becky2b provided frequent corrections to Benji3, while he never assisted and he did not mention his contribution to the pair. This suggests that being in the same year group did not promote a sense of equality for these students. Becky2b was definitely designated as the stronger between the two but Benji3 protected his feelings of worth by purporting that she was actually a year older.

Even though Chloe1 expressed frustration in her abilities as a tutor, she also felt that she had been of worth in the manner that she assisted in his development as a reader. She expressed, "It makes you feel proud that you're helping someone else to learn." Upon being questioned regarding this assistance, she explained:

> Chloe1: When he first started, he used to miss out lines and stuff. When he didn't know words, he used to skip it and move on. But now, I've told him to go back and he does it.
> AHW: So you feel like he….
> Chloe1: Yeah. He sounds out stuff that he doesn't know.

Although her perceptions of the ideal tutoring sessions had changed from having discussions about the book to the strategy of "sounding out," Chloe1 still felt like her

efforts had been valuable. The type of assistance had changed but she was still providing assistance. Most importantly, she was helping him to progress.

As a tutee, Codey2a did not imply that he offered any support to Chloe1 but a change in role brought an increase in his sense of worth rather quickly. In his first interview as a tutor, Codey2b was questioned regarding his thoughts on his new role. He pronounced that he was "Proud of myself, because I've helped him progress from one to five." As the nurturing role can generate feelings of the social acceptance (Topping, et. al., 2003), it could be debated whether the individual in the tutee role, as the recipient of their tutor's nurturing, would experience the opposite and become more marginalised. However, this sense of pride did not negate the role of Conor3 as he indicated, "I've gotten stuck on a few words and he's said, 'No this is ….' instead of what I said it was." Conor3 never mentioned that he had assisted Codey2b so his perceptions of his own value to the relationship were not based on offering assistance.

Even though Dani1 implied that equality existed in her partnership, she still felt valuable in her role as tutor. She stated, "I helped other people and boosted their confidence as well." The words "other people" signify that she felt that her value was not solely extended towards her tutee and that she had assisted others in building their confidence. In observations and her interviews, she talked to the other partnership and was on friendly terms with them outside of the classroom so they could be the individuals that she was referring. This statement does suggest that her sense of worth extended outside of her partnership and is somewhat reflective of Zins, et. al.'s (2003) statements regarding assistance to others as being seen positively by society. The words "as well" symbolise that she also felt a sense of her own growth in confidence, suggesting that she mutually benefitted. As Dani1 had defined the role of the tutor as one more of equality, sympathy and understanding, her statements indicate that she had been effective and valuable in this role. In Miller et. al.'s (2010) study, they propose that these feelings of mutual benefit can dilute the sense of worth created by the role of tutor. Her low self-confidence prior to her role as tutor affected her positive gains as a tutor. As she started at a deficit, her actual growth in confidence and feelings of worth could have been as significant as the other tutors.

Regardless of her feelings of inadequacy, Daisy2a did not envision herself as being of any assistance to her tutor. When she became a tutor herself, she attributed her close relationship with Dawn3 and Conor3 as contributing to their increased skills; she attested, "it's helped them to like read and stuff." This assistance was significant as Dawn3 "improved a lot." Dissimilar to the other participants, Daisy2b gave credit for these significant improvements to their close relationship rather her abilities. She also never discussed the emotions that she felt in providing this assistance. This implies that she did not really accredit herself as the main contributing factor in Dawn3's significant improvement. Therefore, her sentiments regarding her value and worth were not greatly affected by her assuming the tutor role.

In their final interviews, the tutees were asked regarding their willingness to act as tutors in subsequent intervention groups. They all expressed their desire to tutor the following term and that their abilities had progressed enough to assist someone else. Benji3 responded, "I would feel like I'd gone up a level in my reading and I could help other people with it." Conor3 declared, "It would make me happy that I was helping someone else." Dawn3 confirmed, "Like, I'd like to because I'd like to help other people. Because I know that the same thing has happened to me and I'd like the same thing to happen to them." These statements convey a sense of confidence in their own abilities; they viewed their abilities as having progressed to a point where they would be able to assist another individual. They also all envisioned themselves as being successful, and thus valuable, in this tutor role.

7.2.2- Perceptions of their Potential

As the informal and standardised assessments indicated that both the tutors and core group members were still reading at a level below their peers, society would not envision them as experts. However, Graesser and his colleagues (2011) report that the tutor role implies that they have skills in which the tutee is deficient. The role symbolises a level of expertise and a desired outcome for low-attaining readers. By having participants who would not normally be characterised as experts in this role, the participants' perceptions of their potential were affected in different ways.

AHW: Knowing that he's done this before has that had any effect?

Adam1: Yeah, because he was in the same position as me sort of.

AHW: How does that make you feel?

Adam1: Like he won't judge me only if I need help, then he'll help me.

AHW: And how does that make you feel knowing that he was where you were at now?

Adam1: I'm comfortable with it because like he must know how it feels to like not be confident. And now he's a very good reader.

Being placed in the tutor role, Adam1 was perceived as having skills that Amy2a lacked. The phrase "he must know how it feels" signifies that this was not the current situation. Thus, she assumed that he was now a "confident" reader. He was now an expert rather than an individual who found it difficult to read in front of others. According to Bar-Eli (1998) and Paterson and Elliot's (2006) research, the selection of previously low-attaining readers as tutors is significant, because they are identified as examples that the individual can realistically emulate. As she viewed that he had been in the "same position," this provided her with an image that she had the potential to reach. She no longer envisioned the role of expert as something that she would never be able to achieve.

In addition to providing them with a potential image that they could realistically obtain, the tutors helped the tutees envision themselves as experts. When the tutees were invited to become tutors, they accepted this challenge because the tutors furnished an example that they thought they could emulate. Through the scaffolding process first introduced by Wood and his colleagues (1976), the tutors not only provided a model of a reader, they also provided a model of a tutor. Thus, the tutors taught their tutees skills progressively until the tutees assumed the role as the teacher. Daisy2b iterated, "So everything that Jess said as my tutor, I have said and it kind of helped me to know all of the stuff to be a tutor." Similarly, Amy2b pronounced, "Like when I found out that I was going to be a tutor, I knew what to do because of Adam1." She, like the other core group members, was never concerned regarding her ability to tutor because Adam1 had modelled the skill for her.

Additionally, the tutees were not concerned that their skills were inadequate to assume the tutor role. By working with individuals with skills superior to their own, the tutees were able progress to a greater degree as their tutors' potential acted as an engine to propel their skills forward through the Zone of Proximal Development by Vygotsky (1978). For example, Amy2a did not envision that Adam1's skills were much more advanced than her own and she had confidence in her ability to perform the same function as Adam1 had to another individual. Adam1's previous struggles increased her confidence in her own abilities.

As the participants assumed this new role of responsibility, the manner in which they performed these roles displayed their autonomy and self-perceptions. In the beginning of each tutoring session, the partnership worked on a structured decoding sheet. Afterwards, they read their chosen book utilising a sheet of questions to assist in their discussion of the content.

As the Stage 1 tutors had received their instruction at home by parents or older siblings, these individuals had acted as their models. In Stage 1, the tutors generally followed the structure of the decoding instructions closely whereas observations revealed that they attempted the unstructured comprehension instruction at varying degrees. Generally, the reading portion mainly consisted of their reading the book for ten to fifteen minutes before the session finished and the tutees and tutors asked limited questions. Although these questions were mainly those proposed by Palincsar and Brown (1984) and Harrison (2004) of summarising, questioning, clarifying and predicting, they generally also discussed their inferences and related some of the material to themselves. This correlates with Roscoe & Chi's (2007) finding that unstructured peer tutoring sessions have a tendency not to divert from the lower-levelled areas of cognition pertaining to knowledge-retell. In these sessions, observations indicated that the Stage 1 tutors generally asked for the tutee's preferences and rarely gave commands. Dissimilar to De Naeghal and his associates' (2014) reports that peer tutoring develops autonomy, these tutors embraced structure and their partner's desires and did not want to deviate from them. As these participants had been tutored at home approximately two years previously, this could also suggest that they were not comfortable to deviate from the instructions and summary sessions provided immediately preceding Stage 1.

Despite receiving the same instructions and tutoring training, the Stage 2 tutors diverged in their delivery. Daisy2b stated, "So everything that Dani said as my tutor, I have said and it kind of helped me to know all of the stuff to be a tutor." Amy2b stated her preference for reading the book as she found the other "boring" and "with reading like you can focus on bits that he needs help with." Unlike most of the other tutors and tutees, she preferred the less structured teaching method as she was able to determine her own manner of instruction based on Aaron3's needs. Observations revealed that their discussions of the book were aimed at higher cognitive reasoning rather than the tendency for most unstructured interactions remaining on the lower knowledge-retell level suggested by researchers (Roscoe & Chi, 2007). In comparing Amy2b and Aaron3's skills, the observations exposed Aaron3's ability to decode words occasionally with more accuracy than his tutor but she excelled in her rate of fluency and her confidence to discuss the book. As she perceived that her strengths were in these two areas, her sense of autonomy facilitated her to concentrate on these two areas in which she felt her instruction would be of most value. Although she concentrated on comprehension through her use of deeper leveled questions than Adam1, she felt that she was modeling his skills more exactly.

When Becky2b assumed the tutor role, she portrayed confidence and autonomy. Unlike Beth1, she was assertive and gave numerous demands to her tutee. She also concentrated heavily on the recoding aspect of the decoding instruction despite it not being a large emphasis on the worksheets. When questioned regarding her portrayal of the tutoring role in comparison to Beth1, Becky2b responded:

> Cause Alex didn't teach me some stuff but she taught me the stuff that I needed to know. But little stuff that I knew, I taught Ollie. Like with the timed tests, if he gets one wrong then I tick the one in my book. Then we go over it the next time, like with spelling tests and stuff like that.

As suggested by many researchers, Becky2b's new responsibilities increased her confidence (Chi, et. al., 2001; Fantuzzo, et. al., 1989; King, 1998) and the autonomy of the new role permitted her to concentrate on areas in which she felt successful. Although the teaching of these skills was structured, her increased confidence enabled her to alter

this structure to fit her needs. However, her decision to focus strongly on recoding skills limited the time that her partnership could dedicate to explicit comprehension strategies, which could have contributed to Benji3's difficulty to monitor his comprehension skills.

Interestingly, all of the core group members supplemented a type of daily quiz to the structure of the decoding sheets; all of the core group members had developed these quizzes individually to meet the needs of their tutees. Their actions displayed their ability to regulate their tutee's learning. As their tutee's learning was their priority, they were willing to exercise autonomy and override the lesson's format. These quizzes were a form of ipsative assessment where the tutee's progress was the focus and the tutors provided feedback and praise. As these results were beneficial to the tutees' levels of engagement and feelings of success, they also provided a means for the core group members to envision the results of their efforts as the tutor.

While the core group members' execution of this expert role demonstrated their increased self-perceptions, they differed in whether they felt that they had fulfilled these to the standard of a "real expert."

> AHW: Do you think being a tutee last time has made you a better tutor this time?
> Amy2b: … (4 sec) In a way, yeah because I knew what to do and how I could help.
> AHW: Do you feel like you're probably a better than another student from the very top set?
> Amy2b: No (laughs.)
> AHW: Why?
> Amy2b: Because I'm not top set, and they would be obviously more clever and more confident.
> AHW: Okay. Do you feel like being from a top set would have made R. a better tutor?
> Amy2b: Yeah, in a way, but in a way it could help, like if you're in top set then you know more things. Like they teach different stuff.

Despite her increases in confidence and attainment levels, Amy did not feel that she was at the same expert standard as those with higher levels of reading attainment. Her laughter and the word "obviously" indicate that comparing her to a student who excelled

was almost laughable. They were "more clever and more confident" and their "different" lessons ensured that this would never change. Daisy2b asserted similar thoughts:

> AHW: Do you feel like you were a better tutor than if I just took someone from a top set to be a tutor?
> Daisy2b: No.
> AHW: Why?
> Daisy2b: Because they have more experience... Well, maybe. It depends…
> AHW: What do you mean that it depends?
> Daisy2b: Cause if you take someone from the top set, they're obviously in the top set. And yeah…
> AHW: Does that make them a better reader or a better tutor?
> Daisy2b: Could be a better reader.
> AHW: What about a better tutor?
> Daisy2b: Could be, yeah…
> AHW: Would you want to be tutored by someone that has done this before or maybe struggled before or]
> Daisy2b: [one that struggled.
> AHW: Why?
> Daisy2b: Because you can help them and they won't get embarrassed if you say something wrong.

Although she did not laugh at the comparison, Daisy2b did not perceive that her reading skills had advanced to the highest level in her school. However, she did believe that her skills had increased to the point where she could "help" another low-attaining individual and in some ways be more proficient.

Nevertheless, the other two core group members believed that previously low-attaining students, or more specifically students who had been tutees, were the best candidates for this job. Codey2b affirmed, "Then you know what it feels like to be a tutee and what you need to do to help them out instead of just get on with this and get on with that." Their relatedness enabled the social link that Franzak (2006) suggested was requisite for a

literacy mentor. Meanwhile, Becky2b explained, "Cause I still struggle, me helping him helps me more. I think that it has helped him to realise that I still need help but it's okay to ask for help and stuff." Becky2b's response exposes the mutual benefit that this situation gave to both the tutor and the tutee. By both the tutee and tutor requiring assistance, it became socially acceptable rather than a sign of weakness.

Another means that a tutor can enhance the tutee's social acceptance is through their model of positivity. As Daisy2b reflected on her relationship with Dani1, she described that she complimented her regularly and "she was always really positive." Upon detailing her own behaviour to Dawn3, she attempted to model her tutor's positive behaviour, "Cause if I'm horrible then it's like bad on me." When I asked her to explain "bad" on me, she indicated that her negative or "bad" behaviour would lead to her tutee's negativity. She clarified, "She might pick it up like when she's a tutor that she's like me." As tutees often model their tutor's behaviour, the tutor's attitude becomes significant (Franca, et. al., 1990). Therefore, Daisy2b understood that her positivity would be replicated by her tutee.

Likewise, Becky2a also expressed her sentiments regarding her tutor's frequent compliments, which made her feel comfortable to make mistakes.

> Becky2b: She didn't get angry or upset. She was always calm about it and understood what I was trying to say. Like in the book, if I didn't understand, she would spell it out for me and not just go that it was this…. It made me feel quite good that I got it right. If I got something right that I didn't get right before, it made me feel quite good because I had learnt it.
> AHW: Do you try to compliment [Benji3]?
> Becky2b: Yeah. Because struggle quite a bit with his reading. Like if he writes something and he can't understand it, then we go through it together. I stop and he reads it through and I say that was good.

In contrast to Fantuzzo and Ginsburg-Block's (1998) declaration that a tutor's vocalisation of encouragement and praise correlates to their tutee's increased perceptions of social acceptance, Dweck (2017) argues that praise further emphasises ability to

individuals with fixed mindsets. Similarly, Becky2b and Benji3 saw these episodes differently. Benji3 described Becky2b's attempt to praise, "She normally says, 'Okay.' Just okay." According to Benji3's perceptions, Becky2b's attitude was somewhat negative towards him. Even though this was solely his perception, this suggests that he did not entirely feel accepted in their relationship. Therefore, any of his tutor's attempts to praise and be positive were not perceived as such by Benji3. As this praise was given after he corrected an error, this could also be manifestations of their different mindsets. Becky2b's growth mindset saw the ability to correct an error positively, while Benji3's fixed mindset focussed on the error's negative reflection on his ability.

7.3 Reflections on the Relationships

As the second research question involves understanding the participants' self-perceptions, the open-ended interviews were necessitated to explore this intangible state. These interviews, coupled with observations, enabled any alterations to the participants' self-perceptions of their reading abilities to be detected. Although for these changes to occur, the participants needed to read. Generally, low-attaining readers have had negative experiences, which have led to feelings of failure (Mathewson, 1996). Thus, when reading in front of their peers, low-attaining readers perceive that their peers are appraising their reading skills negatively. The participants shared mixed sentiments in response to being asked to read the material from their English curriculum. When this request included reading in front their peers, all of the participants altered their responses to their blatant refusals or feelings of hesitancy.

As the participants were adolescents, their peers' opinions mattered to them. Thus, as Brown (1998) reports, they relied heavily on these interpersonal comparisons to compose their perceptions of themselves and their abilities. In general, the participants depicted that their skills were low to average and both their informal and standardised assessments revealed that they were performing well below their peers. Their negative experiences with their peers and the correlating perceived appraisals needed to be replaced by positive ones (Burns, 1982; Tesser, 2003) but their hesitations and skills did not present them with these required experiences. When the participants were partnered with another

individual, it was debateable whether they would abandon their feelings of hesitancy and read, and if they did, whether they would be presented with positive experiences. Without this change, they would continually become more negative towards reading, following the trend that sees a widening of the attitudinal gap between high and low attaining readers with time (Clark, 2011; PIRLS, 2006).

In order to combat this negativity, the participants were partnered with other individuals with whom they could relate. According to observations and the second interviews, the participants formed close relationships with their reading mentors, the relationships that Franzak (2006) dictates as being integral to the successful adolescent experience. These tutors were sources of positivity according to themselves and their tutees, with the exception of Benji3 who pronounced Becky2b's attempts at positivity to be mediocre. As suggested by research, these positive remarks and encouragement acted as a model for their tutors to replicate (Franca, et. al., 1990) and assisted in their establishing close relationships. The exception was found in the partnership of Becky2b and Benji3. While Benji3 reported that their relationship was strained at times, Becky felt that they had a warm bond.

Fantuzzo and Ginsburg-Block (1998) also pronounce that a tutor's compliments and positivity also link to the tutee's sense of social acceptance inside and outside of the session. In the participants' interviews and in observations, compliments were not the precursor to feeling close and socially accepted by their tutor. Their relatedness enabled them to read. While they read, the tutor's praise enhanced these positive feelings and motivated them to continue reading. Therefore, these feelings of positivity and social competence could engage them with the process.

At times, these close relationships were detrimental, especially in the case of Chloe1 and Codey2a. Chloe1 reported her frustrations at times as she felt that they often stopped to talk or he got distracted. According to the informal assessment data from his time as a tutee, these disruptions did detract from Codey2a's progress. On average, the core group members increased their reading level by 24.3 months during their twelve weeks as tutees. In comparison, Codey2a progressed nine months, which could imply that he did not engage himself in the process as much as the other tutees. Even though the comfort

level produced by these close relationships and their relatedness can distract from the process, it also attracts them to the process. Without these affiliations, they hesitated or refused to read. Thus, it also provided them with positive experiences in which to counteract their previous negative ones.

The participants' reading skills also progressed in their bi-weekly informal assessments. Their correlation was not surprising as Fantuzzo and Ginsburg-Block (1998) pronounced that these positive tutoring relationships are directly associated to academic outcomes as evidenced in the substantial progress obtained by the participants. On average, the participants' ability to read texts increased by a difficulty level of 28.6 months during their twelve weeks as tutees, according to their informal assessments. While Benji3's increase was on average at 29 months, his standardised assessments suggested that he was still significantly behind his peers. These assessments indicate that the participants' reading levels and their academic outcomes both significantly benefited from being tutees in the intervention and they coincide with their positive relationships with their tutors.

On a metacognitive level, these positive experiences enabled them to concentrate on their own progress. In their English classrooms, most of the participants reported that their skills were lower than their peers and they based their self-appraisals on these perceived appraisals (Brown, 1998). Instead of forming these self-appraisals in a negative atmosphere, they were surrounded by a positive atmosphere. In this atmosphere, their focus became their own academic progress and their tutor's praise and encouragement rather than interpersonal comparisons. Surrounded by this positivity, their self-appraisals began to mirror this atmosphere. Their self-perceptions became more positive and they continued to read during the intervention. As they left the tutoring and positive atmosphere into the presence of their classmates, a reversal of focus could have occurred. This would make this intervention and a change of self-perception exclusive to the tutoring atmosphere. However, in their final interviews, the participants who proposed hesitations based on their fears of reading, rather than general shyness, were receptive to requests to read aloud to their peers. When queried regarding their reading abilities, most of these participants now reported their skills as being on the scale of average to superior in comparison to their peers. This suggests that a change in atmosphere would lead them to make interpersonal comparisons once again, although they perceived that their reading

skills had increased. This meant that they perceived that their peers' appraisals of their skills would also increase in reflection to their improved skills. Thus, their self-perceptions of their reading skills had increased.

As Graesser et. al. (2011) propose that peer tutoring is based upon the concept that the tutor has skills in which the tutee is lacking, placing a low-attaining reader into this expert role is a debateable tactic. This was intensified by the tutees being similar in ability level and age to their tutors. In most cases, the tutor maintained a teacher role as a "helper" and the participants altered their own definitions as to what constituted an expert to fit the individual's strengths. Although Dani1 was placed into the role of expert by her tutee, she envisioned herself as an equal throughout the process. Even though both her age and attainment level were two years ahead of her tutee, she did not have great confidence in her skills and she was the only participant who maintained a negative attitude towards reading. Nevertheless, she remained a positive role model according to Daisy2a and assigned value to the assistance that her relationship provided her tutee. Thus, her self-perceptions did alter to a degree.

When acting as tutors, all of the other participants assigned great value and pride to their role. They accredited their efforts and reading abilities as the main contributors to their tutee's substantial gains in reading. This indicates their feelings of self-worth and their positive perceptions of their reading abilities. Similar to their tutees, these positive tutoring relationships coincided with their academic outcomes as their reading levels increased by an average of 9.0 months according to their standardised assessments. This suggests that tutors, especially those whose skills were below their peers, experienced great gains in both their self-perceptions and their reading abilities. Only two participants assuming the tutee role also attributed to offering any assistance and value to their partnerships. While the observations indicate that the actuality of Aaron3's claims, they suggest that Amy2a's perceptions were not accurate. As a tutee, Aaron3 was slightly advanced in age and his standardised assessment reading level than Amy2b. Despite their defining her as the superior, their age and skill level was more reflective of a same-age peer tutoring relationship. Therefore, Miller et. al.'s (2010) finding that cross-age tutors experience increases in their self-worth also appears to be applicable to cross-ability tutors.

As these advances in self-worth are unique to those individuals in the cross-age or ability tutor role, the benefits to the tutees may be queried. When tutees assumed this tutor role or were presented with this possibility, they also reported great advances to their feelings of worth. Their willingness to assume this role also suggests the confidence that they had that their reading skills qualified them for this expert role.

With the members of the core group, their confidence was not ill placed as their tutees made similar advances in their reading skills than they had. According to the informal assessments, the core group members were able to read material that was on average 23.8 months more difficult than when they had started, in comparison to the 15.0 months of their tutees. While assuming their roles as tutors, they were more assertive in their roles than their tutors had been. By all four of the core group members exhibiting this characteristic, it implies that it related more to their confidence than just being differences in personality. This confidence was also exhibited by the autonomy employed to alter instruction and their tutee's increased scores implies that these changes were not detrimental to their tutee's progress.

While all three groups showed advances in both their perceptions of themselves and their skills, there is one area that did not progress to the same extent. According to observations, the partnerships concentrated much of their time on decoding and the lower-level comprehension questions relating to summary and knowledge-retell. Roscoe and Chi (2007) declares that this often occurs in peer-age tutoring relationships. When there is not a large separation between the knowledge of the tutor and tutee, 'the zone of proximal development' (Vygotsky, 1978) does not propel the student as far forward. Although I did not observe that the scaffolding of comprehension questions and skills to the extent I desired, the participants declared that they were occurring. As their chosen novels were lengthy and difficult, it took them longer to cover the material necessitated to ask and discuss these comprehension questions. Thus, some of the tutors decided to use these scaffolding techniques once a week. As their observations were recorded once a week, these sessions never converged. The observations indicated that Amy2b was the most effective tutor at discussing deeper-levelled questions. This is interesting as her assessments suggested that her tutee's level of attainment was above her own. Therefore, the scaffolding of comprehension questions provides further areas to explore.

Chapter 8- Conclusions

In order to offer my concluding thoughts on low-attaining secondary readers and their needs for intervention, the final chapter is organised into sections. The initial section briefly reviews the study, including an overview of the problem, research questions, design of the study and an analysis of the data collected throughout the study. In further sections, I discuss different aspects of the study, such as the original contributions to knowledge that this study offers to the field along with its implications for future practice. In addition, other sections reveal limitations of this research along with potentials for further research. To conclude the chapter, final thoughts are presented.

8.1 A Brief Review of the Study

Internationally, numerous secondary school students lack basic literacy skills (ADORE, 2009; DfES, 2008; OECD, 2015; USDE, 2002). Even though much research on the topic of literacy exists, most studies focus on younger students' initial efforts to learn to read rather than older students who have struggled with specific elements of the reading process. According to the Simple View of Reading (Gough & Tunmer, 1986), reading is the product of decoding and comprehension. Even though secondary low-attaining readers are often informally or formally diagnosed with issues such as dyslexia (Elliott & Grigorenko, 2014), none of the numerous definitions of such issues alter the need for decoding and comprehension to be taught systematically and explicitly. Instead, this instruction needs to be individualised to meet their specific needs and to fill in gaps that exist in their decoding skills (Sanders, 2001).

However, by secondary school, low-attaining readers have already experienced numerous negative reading experiences, generally resulting in negative perceptions of their reading skills, a lack of confidence and the motivation to read. In order for any intervention to be successful with this population, it must recognise the student's emotional needs and the social contexts in which they were constructed and combat them. McCardle, et. al. (2008) dictate that the simultaneous focus on the development of intrinsic motivation and reading skills is essential to success as it will motivate them to read and practise their

newly acquired skills. Peer tutoring has been identified as a means of providing positive social relationships with a literacy mentor that has proven significant to adolescents (Franzak, 2006). By recognising and providing these emotional and social elements, an intervention can counterbalance the negative perceptions that they have helped to form and replace them with positive ones. According to my findings, I have developed the following diagram to represent the intervention needs of secondary school readers.

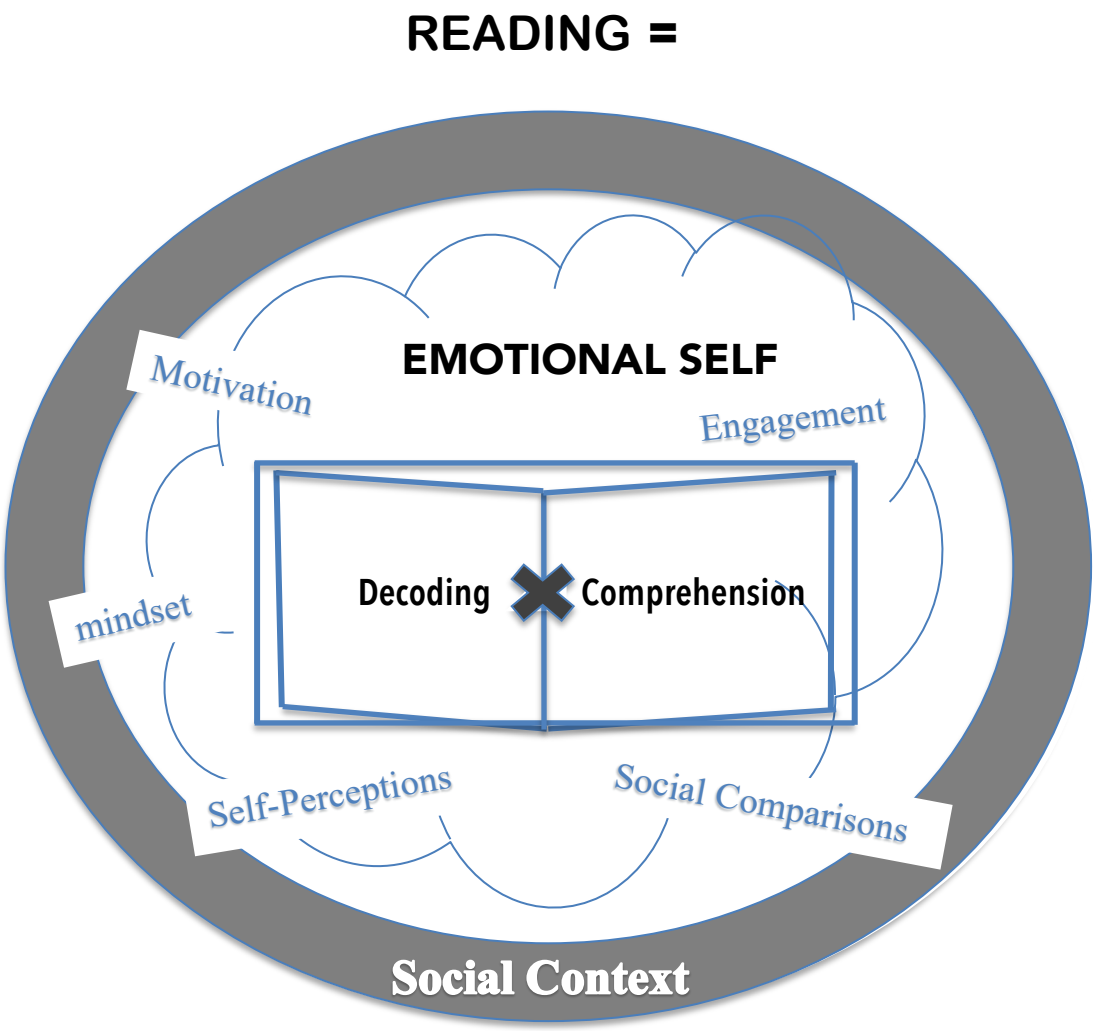


Diagram 6- Intervention Needs of Low-attaining Secondary School Readers

8.1.1- What is the Impact of an Individualised Peer-tutoring Intervention on the Students' Reading Attainment?

In determining the impact of the intervention on the tutees' reading attainment, the quantitative data was provided by formal, standardised tests of their reading comprehension and informal running records of their decoding skills. Even though each exam assessed two different elements of reading and measured months differently, trends of the results from the assessments could be compared to reveal the effects that the intervention had on their reading behaviours. Both the core group members and the tutees progressed nine to 36 months in their ability to read multi-syllabic words in the tutee role, suggesting that their decoding skills had improved in the twelve-week period. Their standardised assessments showed similar progress of nine to 31 months, indicating that their comprehension skills had also improved substantially. However, one participant, Benji3, had a running record that did not correlate with those attained from the Suffolk Reading Scale 2, revealing a lack of metacognitive skills and that decoding skills were being performed in a state of 'mindlessness' (Nguyen, et. al., 2014). The other eleven participants' progress correlated to a high extent with the role that they assumed during the intervention.

Although participants in each role experienced significant gains in their comprehension skills according to the SRS2, the tutors' growth was less as they progressed an average of nine months. This is contrary to the reports of researchers that tutors can make the greatest cognitive gains (Fantuzzo et. al.,1989; King, 1998; Roscoe & Chi, 2007). On initial consideration, the difference in progress would signify that Vygotsky's (1978) 'the Zone of Proximal Development' propelled those in the tutee position further than those acting as tutors. On further examination, the tutees progressed an average of fifteen months, with the discrepancy of Benji3 taken out of the equation, and the core group members' performance displayed an average increase of the tutee and tutors' growth added together, twenty-four months. Despite some of the core group members being of similar age and ability level to their tutees, their progress corresponded with that experienced by participants in their same roles during Phase 1. Therefore, this progress

seems to have related to the roles that they performed rather than differences in age or attainment-level of the tutoring partnerships.

By only considering these assessments and a positivist approach, this study would have failed to reveal the underlying, interpretivist factors that are significant to the participants' attainment levels and their relationships with reading. The qualitative data provided a means of understanding the participants' views about reading and to envision any reflections that these had on their performance on their assessments. In their initial interviews, most participants discussed reading at word level and their role to break down or sound out the word. As the tutee and core group members' assessment scores indicated, they had plateaued at accessing classroom materials and fiction geared towards the early Key Stage 2 age group. Thus, their focus remained on decoding the words in the text, which Perfetti et. al. (1996) suggest requires most of the mental capacity of individuals who are deficient in these skills, leaving little room for becoming more involved with the text. Not surprisingly, without an involvement with the text, only three participants reported that they enjoyed reading and that it was intrinsically motivating.

In subsequent interviews, the participants progressively discussed the meaning-making process involved with reading. As this correlates with their increasing running record measurements, this implies that as decoding required less effort, their mental capacity could gradually be dedicated to comprehending the text (Perfetti, et. al, 1996; Pressley & Allington, 2014). At the completion of the peer tutoring intervention, eleven of the participants' standardised assessment scores had increased, suggesting their comprehension had improved. Unlike the SRS2, running records were given every three weeks to the tutees, making it impossible to determine whether their decoding and comprehension skills progressed simultaneously, or the improvement of their decoding skills preceded and enabled a comprehension of the text, as proposed by Perfetti et. al. (1996) and Pressley and Allington (2014). As the intervention was comprised of explicit decoding and comprehension teaching, it could have slowly made comprehension and its significance to reading more apparent to the participants. Additionally, as the decoding instruction was based on three different approaches and some of this instruction focussed on the larger onset-rime level, this could have emphasised the importance of words and meaning to the participants. In either case, the explicit teaching of both of

these elements throughout the reading intervention proved to be of benefit to eleven participants' levels of attainment as they had increased according to both measurements. This growth was more profound for participants who had been in the role of tutee at some point in the intervention.

Likewise, the participants gradually referred to reading as enjoyable. Initially, only three individuals indicated that they enjoyed reading, a typical attitude of secondary low-attaining readers. Generally, an increase in age also sees the division between the positive feelings that high-attaining students associate with reading to those of their low-attaining peers widen (McKenna, et. al., 1995; PIRLS, 2006). However, the opposite held true for the participants. In their final interview, eleven participants reported that they "liked" reading and that they read more often, indicating that they had become engaged or involved with the material that they were reading.

As intimated by the number of research studies that have been conducted, parents are seen as significant in their young child's relationship with reading. According to the minimal studies about a parent's prominence in their older child's reading experience, their role decreases substantially as their children become older. Only three participants were asked to read occasionally, providing a source of extrinsic motivation to their children. These efforts led to the participants reading but unless they became intrinsically motivated, they were merely isolated occasions, indicating that discipline and punishment is not the best route for parents to take in attempting to get their older children to read.

Additional practices of parents were also invaluable to encouraging their children to read. In their study, the National Literacy Trust highlighted the importance of a desk in parents' attempts to encourage their eight to sixteen-year-old children to read (Clark, 2011). Although none of the participants discussed a desk, one participant mentioned the practical need for a quiet environment conducive to reading and a desk is a spot designated for this purpose. The participants did not seem to notice this basic necessity unless it was absent. By the end of the intervention, this participant was the only one who still reported that she did not enjoy reading as she needed to read aloud to become engaged mentally and her home did not provide her with a location quiet enough to

facilitate her needs. Upon being in the quiet of her grandmother's house where reading material was available, she read voluntarily and enjoyed it.

Even though most of the participants had access to reading materials in their homes, a practice shared by parents of avid readers (Strommen & Mates, 2004), the materials in their homes did not serve as sources of intrinsic motivation to them and most of the participants did not read frequently. In subsequent interviews and as they reported an increasing fondness for reading, four of the participants stated that their parents had bought them reading materials that they had requested and they read these for longer amounts of time than they had read previously. The parents had purchased these materials under the direction of the participants, suggesting that they were not proactive in their attempts to motivate their children to read. Two other participants, whose access to material was limited to an Xbox and children's books, began to read frequently when novels from the adolescent genre were provided for them, revealing the importance of parents' provision of reading materials deemed as interesting by their children. Nevertheless, it is not clear whether their skills improved and permitted them to become more engaged with the material or whether the provision of interesting material had resulted in their motivation to read more.

Likewise, the materials that they read displayed much about their perceptions of what constituted reading material. According to Marsh (2003), schools and society continue to conceptualise reading as print and book-based. Similarly, the participants often did not envision texts, such as passages from social media, magazines, the internet or homework, as reading material. Throughout the interviews, this conception of reading material led the participants to often omit time spent reading these types of texts. This occurred throughout the intervention, suggesting that these perceptions did not relate to their engagement or attainment levels and was a concept perpetuated by society as to what constituted reading.

As these materials are often criticised as being "light" and requiring little from the reader, school systems often disregard their value (Crawford, 2004; Krashen, 2004). Likewise, the participants seemed to dismiss texts that were not books, suggesting that they also did not envision them as reading. All of the participants, who stated that they enjoyed

reading in their initial interview, reported reading books. By the second interview, the participants who initially reported reading texts that were not books had begun reading comics or graphic novels. In the final interview, the eleven participants who "enjoyed" reading had graduated to reading books, alluding to these "light" materials' function as a bridge to accessing "heavier" material that society and the participants conceptualised as being proper reading material. The participants' perceptions that their skills had increased or were less intimidated by materials could have gradually increased their levels of confidence and led to their reading material that they found to be more difficult, such as books. Alternatively, these "light" materials could have helped deal with the pressures placed on the participants' time. As they are adaptable to time constraints and can provide a means for the reader to quickly comprehend and be immersed in the material (Serantes, 2006), they provided more opportunities to utilise explicit comprehension strategies. When these strategies became internalised, books became easier to read and comprehend, making the reading process more enjoyable.

Even though reading held intrinsic value for arguably all of the participants by the end of the intervention, the true test was whether this concept of value was more than they had for other tasks. When children become adolescents, the demands on their time between working, homework and other obligations becomes greater, limiting the time that they have to spend on things that they enjoy and leading to declines in recreational reading. Despite eleven participants stating that they read for longer amounts of time by the end of the intervention, some of the times given indicated that time spent reading was a difficult thing to quantify. However, the ways that the participants found extra time to read recreationally was enlightening. In order to create this extra time, one participant brought material with him to utilise time he spent in the car. Another participant read while he was waiting. Two other participants stayed up later; one utilised his phone as a flashlight to enable him to continue reading under his covers. Thus, the participants' intrinsic motivation to read did not outweigh their desire to participate in other activities, except sleep, but it was enough for them to utilise time not dedicated to other activities to reading.

8.1.2. How might this individualised peer-tutoring intervention alter the tutors and tutees' self-perceptions about reading?

Regardless of whether a participant has experienced increases in their levels of attainment, Lawrence (2006) proposes that these will not develop further if they do not correspond with their perceptions of themselves as readers. Dissimilar to the majority of past studies that focussed on younger readers, this study's aim is to assist secondary students who have had more experiences from which to base these perceptions. As they were secondary students, their additional years of experience increased their capabilities to analyse these experiences and to communicate the identities that they helped to formulate. Thus, a study about secondary readers necessitates greater consideration be given to these perceptions and the second strand was designed to expose these perceptions. In order to facilitate these increased capabilities, the participants were asked open-ended questions so they could communicate these intricacies without being confined by parameters. Recorded observations were a means to validate this information (Hafen, et. al., 2012).

When posed with the question regarding their ability to read material from their English class curriculum, most of the core group members and tutees gave automatic replies, not taking time to consider their actual capabilities. These quick replies suggested that these responses had been predetermined to correspond with their fixed entities of intelligence (Dweck, 2017). As most of these participants' past reading experiences had been negative, they did not label themselves as readers, or at least 'good' readers. They either avoided or altered their perceptions of new experiences to correspond with this label. Their responses regarding their ability to read the classroom text were based on these labels and not accurate reflections of the attainment levels indicated by their assessments. Until they began to view experiences such as assessments as opportunities to discern areas where they could improve and as motivation to put forward the effort required to make improvements, interventions and other reading experiences would have been futile exercises. In contrast, the four tutors spent more time in forming their response to the question and suggested strategies that they could employ when difficulties arose, suggesting that they held beliefs in the malleability of intelligence.

Changing the manner that the participants saw themselves and learning, especially when these views have been perpetuated over years of being in school, initially seemed somewhat unrealistic for an intervention that lasted twelve weeks. However, many of the participants' views had altered to some degree by their second interview and consideration was given in their responses about their efficaciousness to read the upcoming term's classroom novel. Correlating with their assessment scores, all of the participants expressed that they felt they had improved and many core group members and tutees expressed the necessity of continual practice to maintain or to reach their reading potential. These expressions signified that they progressively viewed intelligence, and learning, as something that could grow and not as something predetermined. Their peer tutoring relationships could have served a major source for these shifting mindsets. In their mid- or final interviews, the core group members and tutees identified their tutors as having advanced reading skills despite having 'struggled' previously, refuting the notion that intelligence was a fixed trait.

Even though the participants had developed a general perception of the malleability of intelligence, these notions needed to become specified to their own capabilities (Castella & Byrne, 2015). The tutors provided a potential image that their tutees felt that they could realistically reach (Bar-Eli, 1998; Paterson & Elliot, 2006), and did reach in the case of the core group members. This growth mindset was reinforced with the prospect of becoming tutors themselves, as well as their performance on informal assessments. As they began to progress, they were able to monitor their comprehension, leading to further examples of this growth. In the case of the core group members, they had further time and experiences to establish these mindsets as they assumed the expert role of tutor. Even though this new role could have resulted in the core group members labelling themselves as the "expert," they stated the need to continue practicing. With these new mindsets, they continued to seek out challenges and future attempts that ended in failure were perceived as opportunities from which to learn.

Unless these new mindsets were coupled with physical effort, they would not culminate in positive results. As challenging tasks demand effort, an individual needs to be motivated and believe that their efforts will be rewarded (Bandura, 1997). When the core group members and three tutees were initially presented with the task of reading the

English classroom novel, their responses were negative or automatic. Unlike the tutors' responses, they did not offer any strategies from which they could successfully accomplish the task. By their final interview, all of the participants indicated that their attempts to read the English class novel would be effective after they had taken time to look at the material. When they anticipated that any issues could arise, they listed numerous strategies that they could employ to make completing the task possible. The participants held positive beliefs regarding their self-efficaciousness in reading the classroom novel in the specific circumstance.

When the participants were asked to read the English classroom text aloud to peers, the participants quickly expressed displeasure or a blatantly refused. Unlike self-efficacy, an individual's self-concept is largely based on social comparisons (Brown, 1998). Although some of the participants' refusals were due to reticence and pertained to performing any activity in front of their peers, the majority of these refusals were specific to reading and displayed their negative reading self-concepts. As these participants were chosen to participate due to their poor performance on the school-wide standardised assessment and a failure to progress despite the utilisation different intervention methods, the participants' negative reading self-concepts were not surprising. The employment of standardised assessments substantiated the value placed on these comparisons, leading to further differentiation from their peers and marginalisation.

Feelings of marginalisation were of particular detriment to the participants as they held their peers' opinions in higher regard than individuals in other age groups (Walton & Cohen, 2007) and they avoided any situation that would expose them as being inadequate. In order for the participants to actively participate in the intervention, isolation needed to be counteracted with feelings of social belonging. As skills also needed to be taught, cross-ability tutoring was necessitated. However as cross-ability tutoring is based on the concept that the tutor has skills in which the tutee is deficient (Graesser, et. al., 2011), the intervention could have promoted feelings of marginalisation and inferiority and discouraged the tutees to participate. By positioning previously low-attaining readers in the role of tutor, their tutees were no longer marginalised. All of the core group members and tutees commented on their feelings of relatedness as their tutors 'knew what it was like' to find reading difficult. The partnerships developed positive

relationships, which culminated in most having friendly discussions inside and outside of the sessions. Even though these conversations seemed to distract them at times, they could have been necessary to accommodate discussions and the use of the explicit comprehension questioning strategies.

Dissimilar to their reaction at reading aloud to their peers, the participants were all willing to read with their partners. Initially, some of the participants reported hesitations but all of the participants stated their preference to read with their partner rather than by themselves in later interviews. This preference corresponded with comments on not feeling judged if they made a mistake, unlike in their English classroom. Without the fear of their partner's negative appraisal of their skills, the participants were able to focus on learning. The informal assessments and the assessments developed by the tutors themselves were ipsative and focussed on individual progress. Even though most of the participants defined the roles of tutor and tutee as disproportionate, they viewed their partnerships more equally and placed value on the role that they played. This value was promoted by both partners actively participating and observed in their on-task behaviour, providing more opportunities to practise and internalise reading strategies and to progress. Instead of being detrimental, the cross-ability tutoring roles provided familiar teacher-student guidelines from which to structure their intervention sessions. The cross-ability tutors also benefitted from envisioning themselves as an "expert" reader capable of teaching another individual.

With this progress, the participants' perceptions of themselves became more positive. They envisioned that they had progressed in relation to their peers with the exception of one participant. Throughout the phase, he remained overly confident of his attainment levels and how they compared to his peers, a situation common for low-attaining students (Klassen, 2006) and indicative of his difficulties monitoring his comprehension. In twelve weeks, this progression caused two core group members to be placed into English classes that had out-performed their previous class by one to three levels, according to the class titles. In these new classes, the two participants were presented with new frames of reference from which to base their comparisons and competency levels that society deemed as superior to their old ones. Therefore, these two core group members' comparisons with their classmates were less positive than the other core group members

and the tutees. By their final interview, all of the participants were willing to read aloud in front of their peers with only a few holding some reservations. Thus, their positivity extended outside of the specific task, indicating that all of the participants had developed a more positive reader self-concept.

While some of these participants identified themselves as being confident readers, others declared that they were on the path towards achieving this status and reading was required to ensure that they continued along this path. The core group members experienced the greatest gains because they received the benefits from participating in each role. As tutees, their levels of reading attainment increased substantially and the tutor role afforded the greatest differences to their self-perceptions. Even though Becky2, when positioned as a tutor, reported being further along in the process of becoming a "good" reader, the other three core group members identified themselves as reaching this status and being readers.

8.2 Contributions to the Field

Even though the research on reading is extensive, this study provides numerous contributions to the field. In previous studies, different aspects of reading have been explored but these have generally concentrated on those that are specific to the author's theoretical perspective. These perspectives have limited these studies so they have not included all of the aspects of reading that are significant to secondary low-attaining readers' complex needs. With the utilisation of the pragmatic approach, the complexities of these issues were explored, regardless of whether they belonged to a preferred theoretical perspective and synthesised to develop the Intervention Needs of Low-attaining Secondary Readers. This diagram's significance comes from its ability to recognise the elements that an intervention needs to be comprised to prove effective with secondary, low-attaining readers. By being able to address the needs represented in this diagram, the participants were able to make significant gains, to not only their levels of reading attainment, but they began to enjoy the activity. As the difference between the attitudes and abilities of low-attaining readers and their average-performing peers becomes greater as they become older (Clark, 2011; McKenna, Kear, & Ellsworth, 1995),

any reduction would be significant. According to the intrinsic motivation that eleven participants reported as having and their assessment scores, the intervention based on this diagram produced substantial gains to eleven of the participants.

This diagram has also led me to reconceptualise cross-ability peer tutoring, leading to my novel reading intervention design that the tutees of one programme become the tutors of the next. By meeting the emotional, social and cognitive needs of secondary low-attaining readers, the intervention was effective and generated timely responses, the core group members were able to perform both the tutor, and later, the tutee roles in cross-ability tutoring. This design adds to existing interventions for secondary low-attaining readers in the following ways:

1. Even though both the tutors and tutees progressed in this peer-tutoring design, their progress correlated with the role that they performed in their partnership. The participants who assumed the tutee role at some during the intervention experienced the greatest gains to their levels of reading attainment, whereas, the participants who had assumed the role of tutor displayed the greatest benefits to their self-perceptions. The core group members' performance of both the tutor and tutee roles enabled them to receive the benefits of each of these roles, generating further positive outcomes to their reading attainment levels and their self-perceptions.

2. By utilising cross-ability peer tutoring, the tutees' individual decoding gaps (Sanders, 2001) were focussed upon long enough to experience substantial gains rather than being limited by the repeated exchange of roles demanded by same-age peer tutoring. Even though the definition that many have of the tutor in a cross-ability tutoring as having skills that the tutee is lacking (Graesser, et. al., 2011; Miller, et. al., 2010), this did not lead to the tutee's feelings of inferiority because their collaboration made the tutees feel valued in their relationship. In addition, the design provided them with the knowledge that they could eventually assume the tutor role during the intervention.

3. Even though the tutees' attainment levels and their feelings of self-efficaciousness in reading their English class novel had increased, this could have proven insufficient. As self-efficacy is "malleable" (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003), these feelings could have easily changed. However, by assuming the role of tutor, the participants were provided with an image of themselves as the expert, leading them to alter their self-perceptions to reflect this new status. As the core group members saw themselves as "readers," they developed positive reader self-concepts. As self-concepts are more resistant to change (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003), their role as tutor helped solidify these changes and ensured that they would last long after the intervention ended.

4. The employment of previously low-attaining readers as tutors provided a potential image that the tutees could realistically emulate (Bar-Eli, 1998; Paterson & Elliot, 2006). These tutors served as examples of the malleability of intelligence to counteract the fixed mindsets of many of the participants, enabling them envision intelligence as incremental. In addition, as the participants were not keen to read in front of their peers, they would not have participated fully and comfortably. However, they were comfortable to work with tutors who had previously experienced the same kind of struggles because they felt a sense of relatedness (De Naeghal et. al., 2014). These feelings of relatedness decreased their worries of being marginalised and enabled them to fully participate without the fear of their partner's appraisals of their skills. These feelings also encouraged a sense of social belonging where both partners had a role to play as they monitored each other's reading and comprehension, leading to a positive and collaborative environment. Even though a sense of belonging is of particular importance to adolescents, these feelings decrease throughout secondary school (Anderman, 2003; Walton & Cohen, 2014). The participants experienced the opposite. This was created by their feelings of relatedness and by both partners having a role that they felt was valuable.

5. The partnership's constant monitoring provided instant feedback and ensured that both students were on-task and engaged (Hafen, et. al., 2012) instead of employing strategies to avoid a situation that could be considered difficult (Hall, 2006). This monitoring, along with frequent assessments, made the participants' progress the measure of success rather than their social comparisons. The focus on their individual progress prompted incremental views of intelligence and made the environment a positive one (Hughes, 2014) where growth could take place.

6. While these advances make this an effective intervention, the participants' provision of this individualised teaching also renders it as realistic and cost-effective to the school setting.

7. Having the core group members assume both the roles of tutee and tutor presented valuable information about peer tutoring. By comparing the interviews, assessments and observations as tutees and as tutors, this provided a means to understand how attainment levels and self-perceptions differed according to the role that they performed.

This study has added to the knowledge in other areas as well. Almost all of the studies in this field have utilised questionnaires to determine a student's perceptions of themselves and their abilities (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 2008). In order to capture this complexity, Bong (2006) advocates the use of open-ended questions because questionnaires are not capable of exposing the intricacies of an adolescent's mind. The qualitative data produced from the study's interviews and observations attempted to expose the participants' perceptions throughout the study rather than utilising a prescribed set of questions that limited responses.

In these interviews, the participants' relationships with reading were revealed. As most of the existing studies have pertained to younger students, the participants' responses assisted in understanding how attitudes change with age. These developments revolved around their changing relationships with their parents. As parental influence decreased, peers gradually assumed this role and this influence became gradually more significant in

almost all aspects of their lives. With age, the participants' responsibilities increased, resulting in decreased amounts of leisure time and time for reading. The participants' responses displayed how these relationships and their influence on the participant altered with adolescence.

Unlike most studies, roles were not based on age or reading attainment level. The tutor role was assigned to those who had previously participated in the intervention. This exposed the participants' perceptions of the tutor and tutee roles and the effect of these roles on their own relationships. Past studies that have examined the aspect of age difference between peers have not been conducted for numerous years (Goodlad & Hirst, 1990; Sharpley & Sharpley, 1981), making this information valuable.

Despite comprehension issues being commonplace, only one study pertaining to secondary low-attaining readers has concentrated on comprehension (Ricketts, Sperring & Nation, 2014), instead studies have focussed on decoding issues. The intervention sessions gave equal focus to both explicit and individualised decoding and comprehension instruction and investigated the results, providing more information regarding comprehension interventions.

8.3 Implications for Future Practitioners

This study has produced a number of implications that would be of interest to any teachers or administrators that associate with secondary students who have issues attaining reading skills. Despite a decade of working with this population, my research exposed various areas of concern for which I was not completely prepared. Several international studies have shown that almost one-fifth of secondary readers experience issues attaining reading skills (ADORE, 2009; DfES, 2008; OECD, 2010, p. iii; U.S. Department of Education, 2002), making it a greater issue than I had expected it to be. My inaccurate expectations could have been shaped by the strategies, such as avoidance and negative behaviour (Hall, 2006), that many secondary low-attaining readers have developed to conceal their struggles with reading. While these strategies may serve as a protection from individuals who might marginalise them, they also hide their identities from individuals with similar issues, promoting their feelings of isolation and the

desirability of employing these strategies further. With these protective devices intact, intervention methods become futile. Future interventions are already predetermined to be failures and negative reader self-concepts become more embedded. This cycle highlights the necessity of building an atmosphere where students are not fearful of others' judgements, permitting them to stop utilising strategies that are counterproductive to any intervention.

By having previously low-attaining students assume the tutor role, these strategies are no longer required. Fears of marginalisation are replaced by a sense of social belonging. In addition, they are given a role model that they can realistically emulate. Interventions are no longer predetermined as failures because other low-attaining readers have succeeded and intelligence is no longer deemed as a fixed trait. Even though this type of peer tutoring makes protective strategies become defunct, it does not remedy the reasons for which the student felt they were necessary in the first place.

Most studies in the field focus on assisting younger students. As these teaching methods have proven ineffective with this population, other methods must be sought out and employed. The Intervention Needs of Low-attaining Secondary School Readers Diagram presents the cognitive, emotional and social elements critical for an intervention to be effective with secondary low-attaining readers. According to the literature and my findings, these elements should be taught by systematic comprehension and phonics instruction that is individualised to address any gap in the student's decoding skills taught by peer tutors.

By the teacher relinquishing the teaching role, the students are no longer able to avoid situations or be passive. They become active learners with a significant role to play in their success and their constant monitoring serves as a means to practice and internalise these cognitive processes. Partnerships give constant feedback, a source of ipsative assessment. Thus, students in both roles are able to measure progress and make this their focus, offsetting the comparative atmosphere often created by secondary schools and their emphasis on standardised testing. In this positive environment, the students are safe to make mistakes and they can envision that their success is viable.

8.3.1 Encouraging Future Outcomes

After the study had concluded, many of the core group members and tutees persistently requested that the intervention continue. They often came with other participants, indicating that feelings of social belonging prevailed within the groups. Due to scheduling conflicts, there were no staff members that were consistently available. As the peer tutors offer the instruction, staff members are only required occasionally to conduct assessments and to take attendance. Thus, students from the sixth form, who wanted to be teachers and met the mandatory safety regulations, began to run the tutoring sessions until more permanent staffing could be acquired.

Upon recommencing these sessions, both the core group members and the tutees assumed the role of tutors and were able to assist other readers. These new tutees were selected utilising the same process that was used in their selection. Afterwards, these students also became tutors to new low-attaining readers. More than thirty individuals have participated in this intervention over the two terms with similar outcomes to those from the study. In order to provide autonomy, the students were able to stop participating in the intervention but only one individual made this decision due to personal reasons. The Local Authority also awarded the intervention for its innovation towards helping reluctant readers.

With the increased attention on both the school and local authority level, a dialogue regarding the needs of secondary low-attaining readers has been created, which will hopefully expand beyond the local region. As this study exposes the significance that both social and emotional aspects represent to this population, this dialogue should lead to both aspects being given deeper consideration during intervention design in all areas. With this added consideration, interventions should be more effective at increasing, not only the attainment levels of secondary students, but their self-perceptions as well.

8.4 Limitations of the Research

When interpreting the data collected throughout the study, there are several limitations that must be considered. First, the ability of my sampling of the students to participate in the study did not exemplify the whole of the population for various reasons. In order to

ensure accessibility to these students for the entirety of the study, the participants were selected from a school where I have taught for numerous years, making them local knowledge cases. Although the population of this comprehensive school is typical for the area, its student population represents little racial or cultural diversity, reducing its generalizability to diverse populations.

Secondly, as these different qualitative data collection methods attempted to provide a reliable and holistic view of the participant's actual thoughts and actions, they had various restrictions. In order to present a comprehensive view of the individuals in these four cases, I recorded observations, made observations *in situ* and conducted three interviews per stage. Despite these multiple methods, it was not feasible to collect data for the entirety of the twelve participants' involvement in the study. Thus, it must be expected that not every occurrence involving these twelve participants was documented.

Due to the qualitative nature of this study, there was also a possibility for miscommunication between the participants and myself, as the interviewer. I employed various methods to minimise any errors in communication. The participants' weak reading skills necessitated these interviews to be audible rather than written. When any queries arose regarding their comprehension of the question being asked or my understanding of their response, I repeated their response or rephrased the question. Throughout the interviews, similar questions were posed to increase the reliability of their responses.

In addition, my teaching position at the school had the potential to influence the participant's responses in various ways. As I had never taught most of these participants or provided intervention methods, this reduced my status as a teacher. In Amy2b's case, I taught her one lesson weekly during her second phase. During the sessions, I attempted to limit my involvement to become a participant-observer and I recorded observations as well as making observational notes *in situ,* providing ways to triangulate and check for reliability within the data. Despite my efforts, my position of authority would affect the participants to some degree and these limitations must be considered when analysing this data.

Lastly, assessments also have restrictions; these restrictions are amplified when they attempt to quantify a phenomenon, such as reading. As the processes of reading, such as comprehension, are not observable, the assessments are measuring the individual's ability to perform another task. The actual behaviour that the SRS2 and the running records were measuring needs to be contemplated, along with the scores that these assessments equate to reading and attainment levels. In order to make the information from these assessments more meaningful, the SRS2 was taken twice, providing a way to determine progress. When they were tutees, running records were taken every three weeks to validate these results and observe trends. While each assessment was measuring a different aspect of literacy development, a similarity in these trends produces a more meaningful representation of their reading skills. However, they are still only indirect observations.

8.5 Potentials for Future Research

Although this study has provided new information on how to assist secondary low-attaining readers, there are still various aspects pertaining to this population to be explored. In my exploration of the effects of an intervention method on this population's attainment levels and self-perceptions, potentials for future research surfaced. There are three main areas that my study exposed as potentials.

As there was a significant difference between the attainment levels of the participants solely assuming the tutor role to those who had been a tutee, further research could be beneficial exploring possible reasons for this difference. As the participants assuming the tutor role were not directly receiving instruction, they were not given running records. The continual visual progress generated by the running records, along with the tutor's statements of praise could have positively impacted on the attainment levels of the participants in the tutee role from which the tutors had not benefitted. Additionally, the tutors were in Key Stage 4 and the core group members and tutees were in Key Stage 3. As exams and career plans become the primary focus for students in Key Stage 4, this could imply that these concerns, failures and more negative reading experiences compound any reading attainment issues. Thus, future studies could incorporate students

from Key Stage 4 in the role of tutee. Similarly, the differences between the participants in the tutor and tutee role could be further emphasised through a replication of this study being readjusted to solely focus on the core group members. In order to more fully understand the progression associated with both roles, a study with longer stages, enabling further interviews and enough lapsed time to conduct meaningful pre- and post-tests after each stage, could help expose the differences of progression between the tutee and tutor role.

Another area to be explored is that of parental involvement. There are numerous studies that show the significance that parents have to various aspects of their young children's literacy development. However, there are very few studies pertaining to the roles that parents play in secondary student's reading. There are various aspects that research could focus, such as parental views of their role in their older child's reading lives and secondary students' views of their parent's role. This current study could also be replicated with parents or significant others assuming the tutor role. Also, none of these studies distinguished between reader's levels of attainment. As many difficulties with reading tend to run in families, these parents could have experienced similar difficulties, which had affected the confidence that they had in their own reading skills and hindered their active participation in assisting their children in the upper years of school once their reading material became more challenging.

8.6 Reflections on my Journey

When I began my study, I had some preconceived notions regarding reading and the most effective methods to assist low-attaining secondary readers. I believed that a focus on cognitive processes was of primary importance to assisting low-attaining readers. My thoughts regarding the emotional aspects of reading were primarily focused on parental involvement. However, I decided to start researching the literature with 'fresh eyes.' As suggested by my advisor, I commenced my literature review by reading selections from both the US, Pressley (2006), and UK, Harrison (2004). I continued my research by reading sources cited by these texts as well as entering areas that these texts highlighted as significant into search engines, paying close attention to texts pertaining to low-

attaining and secondary readers. After various areas emerged as significant in my initial review (see Appendix S), I studied each of these areas utilizing the same process—reading sources cited by these texts and utilizing search engines to research areas of significance to these topics, especially those pertaining to low-attaining and secondary readers. As my studies spanned over seven years, it was also important that I periodically looked for updated versions of seminal texts. Additionally, I utilised search engines to research whether recent studies had been conducted regarding these areas of significance throughout my study.

Even though my literature review suggested that emotional and social aspects were significant to reading attainment, I was unclear as to the level of their significance. Upon careful reflection, the extent at which these social, emotional and cognitive aspects interacted became apparent. The participant's responses revealed their relationship with texts, their perceptions of themselves as readers and the role that others played in their reading experiences and the formation of their self-perceptions. As I became aware of the level of interdependence between these social, cognitive and emotional aspects, it became evident that when designing interventions for low-attaining secondary readers all three aspects needed to be considered to be the most effective.

In addition, my studies clarified assumptions that I held regarding low-attaining readers. Before interviewing my participants, I believed that most secondary low-attaining students deemed that their reading skills were inferior to those of their peers. I was surprised that this was not the case. According to Klassen (2006) low-attaining students have a tendency to overestimate their reading skills and their interview responses suggested that this was an indication of their lack of metacognition or as a means to protect their fixed mindsets (Dweck, 2017). As they began to envision intelligence as malleable and performed better on their standardised assessments, they began to underestimate their levels of reading attainment.

Another assumption pertained to my view of peer tutoring. Even though I viewed peer tutoring as a valuable instruction method, I only assigned its value to its ability to offer individualised instruction in a practical and cost-effective way. I also held its value as an instructional method as secondary to the instruction provided by a teacher. As I conducted interviews and made observations, it became apparent that I had

underestimated its value. The relationships and conversations that developed between the partnerships, as well as most of those involved with the intervention, produced a very positive environment and a sense of social belonging for which I was not prepared. It became apparent that the individuals were not comparing themselves with the other participants, instead they were working together to improve. As they were no longer worried about making mistakes, they were able to utilise the energy previously employed to avoid difficult situations into improving.

8.7 Final Thoughts

The purpose of this study was to find an effective way to assist secondary readers with low-attainment issues that was realistic to the demands of the classroom. Regardless of the numerous intervention methods that their school has delivered, these students have not experienced sufficient progress to their reading skills. Instead, their attainment levels and attitudes towards reading progressively decline and the gap widens between them and peers, who have not experienced such struggles in their reading development. Attempting to close this gap, this study focuses on the reading attainment and perceptions of this population.

When individuals from this population were asked to participate in a reading intervention occurring in non-instruction time, only two individuals declined due to various issues, the other participants immediately indicated that they wanted to be involved. While most of low-attaining secondary readers who participated in this study did have negative attitudes towards reading, I was surprised that these did not extend to their views of reading as a valuable task, necessary to their success.

By providing individualised and systematic decoding and comprehension instruction through the utilisation of cross-age tutors, the participants were able to experience increases in their reading skill levels. Their successes began to affect their levels of confidence, the way that they viewed themselves as readers and their relationship with text, culminating in most participants' possession of intrinsic interest by the end of the study. At the end of the study, eleven participants perceived that their reading skills were either average or superior in relation to their classmates and seven of the eight core group

members and tutees' skills were on or above average for their English class. Therefore, this perception gap had been closed and many now called themselves "readers."

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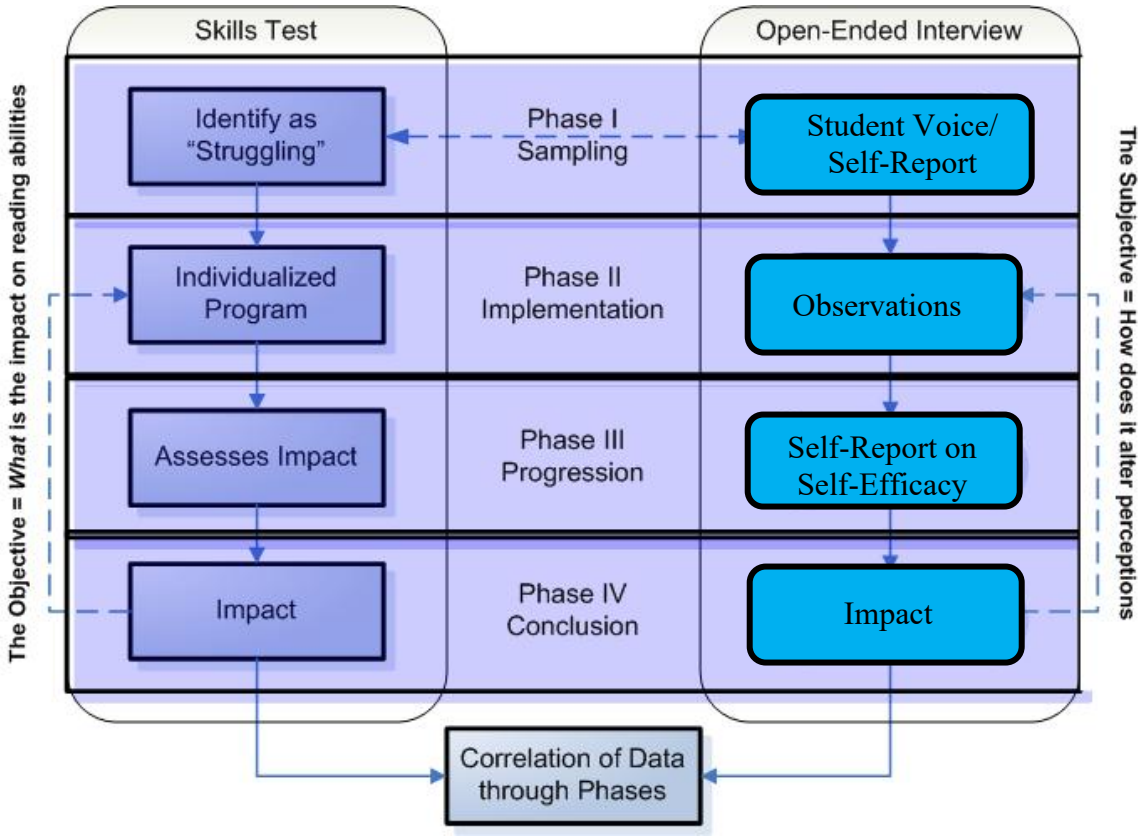
Appendix A- Research design



Appendix B- Consent Form

Dear Parent/Carer,

I would like to invite your child to participate in an innovative reading intervention programme for secondary students. A unique feature of this programme is the use of peer tutors to work alongside and support other students. The programme will run over the last term of school. In order not to detract from their lessons, it will take place during afternoon form time, when there are often individualised support programmes taking place.

I am writing to you because I am interested in looking at the impact of this intervention programme in some detail. I will be collecting data through observations, interviews and assessments throughout the programme. This data and its analysis is solely intended for academic purposes and it will only be shared with an academic audience.

In addition, the collection and analysis of this data will be in accordance to the ethical guidelines of the British Education Research Association, a copy of which I can supply to you upon request. According to these guidelines, your child's confidentiality will be maintained through the use of pseudonyms. They will also have the right to withdraw from the project at any time by talking to their form tutor or myself. Although this withdrawal would mean that data would stop being collected on them, they would still be expected to participate in the intervention programme's activities. These activities are in line with the normal secondary English curricula; the only difference is that specific data will be collected as evidence.

In order to for your child to participate in the above mentioned programme, I need your written consent. This consent form requests your agreement to the following:

- My child can participate in the intervention programme as mentioned above.
- My child can be interviewed, observed and assessed as stated above.
- The collected data can be analysed and utilised with my child remaining anonymous.
- I understand that my child can withdraw from participation in this research at any time should I wish them to do so.

Your Signature:

Date:

Student's Permission:

I understand and agree to participate in the programme as stated above.

Your Signature:

Date:

Appendix C- Intervention Sessions

Stage 1

Tutor

1st Term

Structured Decoding Instruction
Based on the Core Group Member's Running Record Miscue Analysis

Reading Selected Text With Unstructured Comprehension Strategies & Questions

12 Weeks- T, Th & F

Core Group Member

Stage 2

Core Group Member

2nd Term

Structured Decoding Instruction
Based on the Tutee's Running Record Miscue Analysis

Reading Selected Text With Unstructured Comprehension Strategies & Questions

12 Weeks- T, Th & F

Tutee

Appendix D- Decoding Lessons

Lesson Type 1 Delivery:

- At the beginning of the lesson, only the top of the three columns should be revealed
  (Ex.: cha----)
- Given three minutes, the tutee can attempt to make as many words as they can and write them down.
- Uncover the rest of the first column and have them blend the phonemes with you aloud to produce the word.
- Uncover the second column to blend the phonemes aloud together to produce the word. Uncover the third column and do the same.

cha	unch	chi
my words:	my words:	my words:
chap	lunch	chip
chat	punch	chin
chant	bunch	chill
chat	punch	chin
chap	lunch	chill
chant	bunch	chip
chat	punch	chin
chant	lunch	chill
chap	bunch	chip

Lesson Type 2 Delivery:

1. The first and second columns should be read by saying each phoneme in word aloud and blending them into the words.
2. With the third and fourth columns, the tutee should read the words as quickly as possible. If a mistake is made, the tutor needs to correct them immediately and have them reread the word.
3. For the fifth column, you need to cover up the second column and make the different phoneme sounds while your tutee writes down the phoneme associated with the sound that you make.
4. If they write down the letter incorrectly, make the sound again.
4. Once they've completed the column, they can see how accurate they were by comparing their answers with the second column.
5. At the bottom of the page, you can read the sentence together using one of the words in the box to complete it.

Lesson 23- Short a and i

Decoding Together	Decoding On Own	Timed Test Time:	Timed Test Time:	Recoding
chop	Ash	rush	flash	
chat	chill	shot	rush	
chant	catch	chest	chest	
shed	match	shun	munch	
shell	flash	munch	chill	
shelf	shop	ash	match	
rich	shut	chill	lunch	
fish	ship	catch	mash	
dash	dish	match	punch	
trash	such	flash	rash	
rush	much	trash	bunch	
shot	chip	shot	cash	
chest	chop	shun	rich	
shun	chin	ash	dash	
munch	trash	catch	fish	

Decode and fill in the blank with the words above:

I was in a ___ ___ ___ ___ to catch the bus. I was ___ ___ ___ ___ in the chest.

Appendix E- Schedule for Tutor Training

Materials- Decoding Lessons Type 1 and 2 and copies of the text chosen by the group.
Quality Checks- When the partners are practicing the material, the teacher should ensure understanding.

Day 1:

Decoding Section- Lesson Type 1**:**

- The group reads the delivery instructions and completes the first column together.
- The tutors form pairs.
- For the second column, Tutor 1 assumes the tutor role and Tutor 2 the role of tutee.
- Then, the tutors change roles to complete the third column.

Comprehension Section- Summarising:

- Summarising is written on the board and the group defines the term.
- While reading the chosen text aloud, the teacher models asking and making statements focusing on summarising the text.
- After the reading, the group comes up with questions and statements that exemplify ways to summarise the text.
- Then, tutors form pairs. Using the group's responses as a model. Tutor 1 reads and thinks aloud.
- Afterwards, the pairs change roles and Tutor 2 reads and thinks aloud following the model.

Day 2:

Comprehension Section- Questioning:

- While reading the chosen text aloud, the teacher models asking questions regarding different aspects of the text.
- The group brainstorms questions that could be asked regarding different aspects of the text. These questions could be based on their knowledge of the topic or texts in general.
- Utilising the group's responses as a model, Tutor 1 reads aloud and forms questions and summaries of the text.
- Afterwards, the pairs change roles.

Day 3:

Decoding Section- Lesson Type 2**:**

- The groups reading the delivery instructions for Lesson Type 2 and completes the first column together.
- In pairs, the tutors complete the second column.
- For the third column, Tutor 1 assumes the tutor role.
- Then, the tutors change roles to complete the fourth column.
- In order to practice the fifth column, the teacher reads the first three words. Then, Tutor 1 gives three words for Tutor 2 to recode and they change roles for the next three words.

Comprehension Section- Clarifying:

- After the word "Clarifying" is written on the board, the group defines the term.
- The teacher models asking and making statements to clarify the text.
- The group forms questions and statements that lead to clarification of the text, focusing on vocabulary that the author has chosen that they do.
- Tutor 1 reads and "thinks aloud" using the group's responses as a model as well as the summarizing and questioning strategies.
- Then, the pairs change roles and Tutor 2 reads and thinks aloud following the model.

Day 4:

Comprehension Section- Making Predictions:

- While reading the chosen text aloud, the teacher models making predictions.
- Then, the group is asked what they believe the next strategy could be.
- Afterwards, they brainstorm ways to make predictions through the use ofstatements and questions.
- By using the group's responses as a model, Tutor 1 utilises all four strategies.
- Then, the pairs change roles.

Appendix F- First Interview

Self-Efficacy Interview

Student: Book:

Question: How well do you feel like you could read this book?

Interviewer's Verbal Communication	Interviewee's Non-Verbal Communication	Interviewee's Verbal Communication

Appendix G- Mid and Final Interview

Name _____

Guided Interview

Remember:

- Aiming at understanding their perceptions of roles

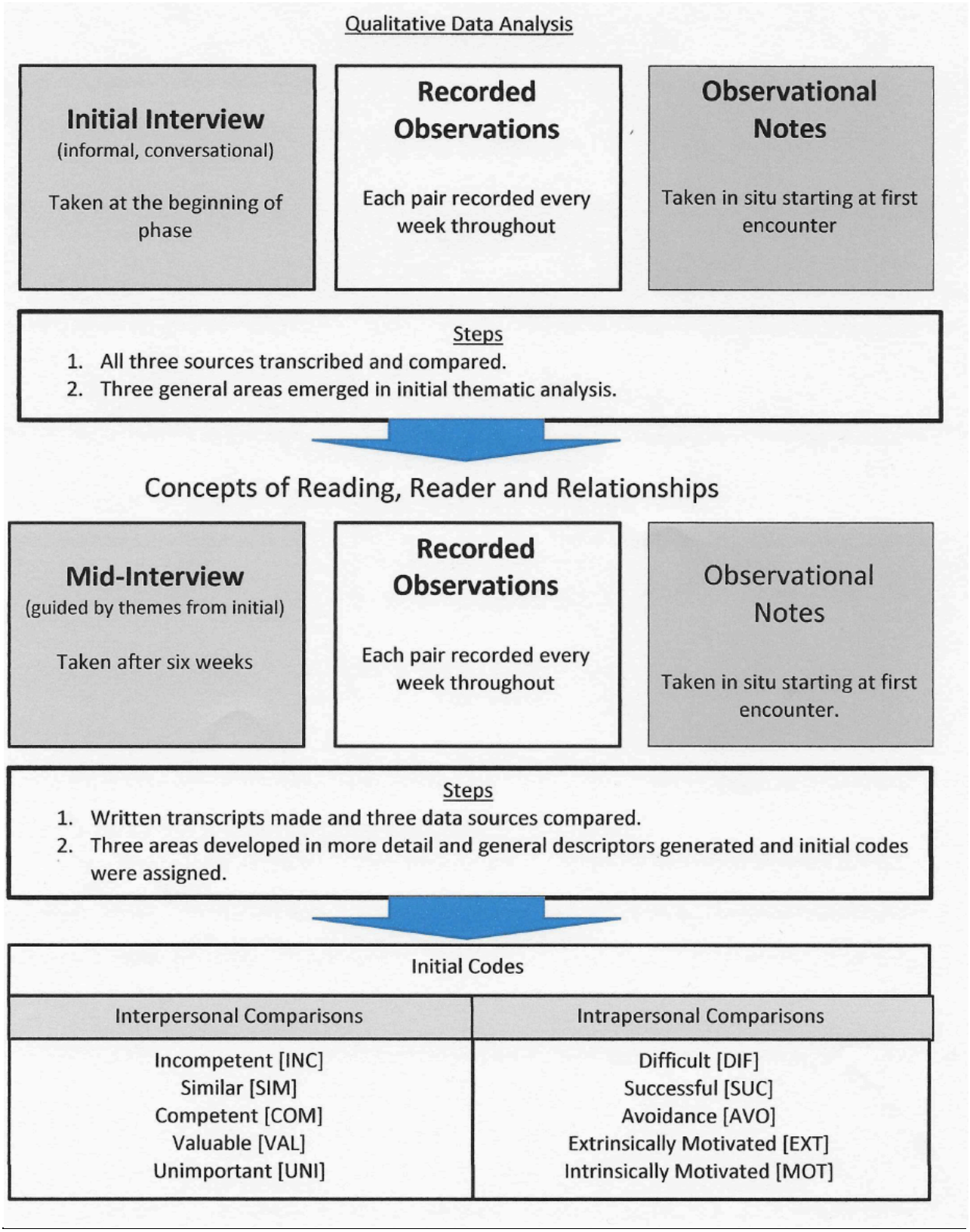
- I'm trying to think how it could work better. Please can you be as open as you can and remember your answers are confidential.

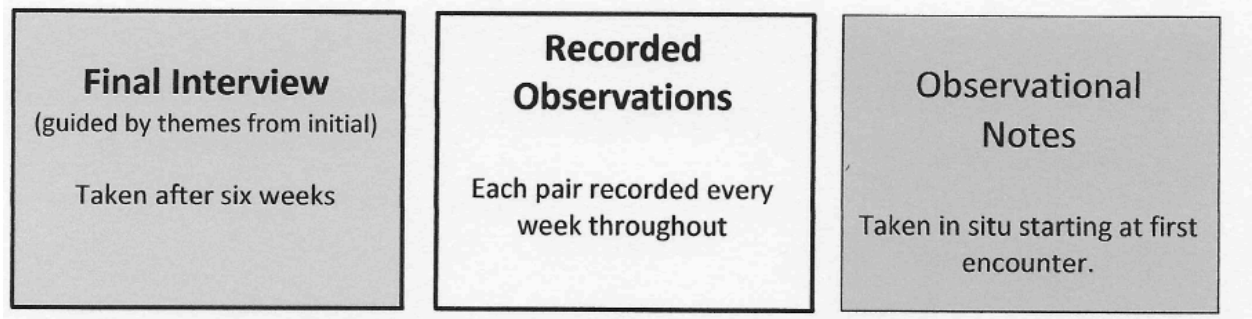
1. **What makes a good tutor?**
2. **What makes a good tutee?**
3. **Describe how it was to be a tutor/tutee.**
4. **Did your partner do all of the things that you described?**
5. **Did you do all of the things that you described?**
6. **Describe how you worked together…**
    - What were things that worked well?
    - What were things that didn't work well?
7. **How have you felt about tutor time?**
    - What was good about it?
    - What was less good about it?
8. **Has tutor time changed anything outside of the session?**
    - Have you made friends with each other or anyone else in tutor time?
    - Have your friends said anything about you coming to a different form?

We've talked about tutor time let's talk about reading. Remember please be as open as possible.

9. **What makes someone a good reader?**
10. **How do you feel about yourself as a reader and has this changed?**
11. **(Hold up reading book.) How well do you feel like you could read this?** How do you feel about reading during English? Has this changed?
12. **How do you feel about reading during tutor time?**
13. **Tell me about reading at home.**
    - What do you read? (books, internet, magazines, study aids, newspaper, etc.)
    - Has this changed?
14. **How do you feel about reading? Why do you read?** Do you read for pleasure or because you have to? Has things changed?
15. **Are there any books that you would like to read during the summer holiday?**

Appendix H- Qualitative Analysis





Steps

1. Data from the three data sources were transcribed and compared.
2. These transcriptions were uploaded into NVivo software (QSR, 2014) and these codes were electronically coded and assigned nodes.
3. A comparison of the commonly used nodes enabled themes and subthemes within these concepts to emerge.
4. These themes and subthemes were compared to the information gathered during the literature review and data from other sources to build a more complete analysis.

The Reading	
Motivation	Engagement
Interest Preferences Others' Influence Perceived Value	Strategies Reading Time
The Reader	
Social Reflection	Introspection
Skill Appraisals Skill Comparisons	Self-efficacy Confidence
The Relationships	
Partnerships	Perceptions
Social Belonging Roles	Values Potential

Appendix I- Comparison of Partnership A's Data

Notes in Situ- A1 and A2 (Continued)

4	**Day 1**- A2 got everything ready and talked to B2 until the tutors arrived came in. A1 and B1 joined in the conversation until the bell rang. During the transition, A2 got the book while A1 got them drinks. They sat down and took turns reading. Occasionally, they stopped and discussed the book but it seemed more like summarizing. A1 often helped A2 sound out words. **Day 2**- A2 absent. A1 read a book on his own. **Day 3**- A2 came in and complained about her braces/bands being too tight to B2 and B1. A1 and B1 arrived and they all chatted until the bell rang. They completed the decoding sheet according to instructions. A1 got them drinks and A2 got the book. A1 asked whether she wanted to start. They took turns reading. A1 asked me a question about how to say beige. They returned to reading. They put their materials away and left chatting about being hungry. **Day 4**- A1 came in and got the materials out and started laughing with B2 about something that happened in the canteen that morning. A2 entered and joined in. They started the worksheet with the bell. I heard A1 complimenting A2. He got out the book while she got a drink and started chatting with B1 and B2 about the weekend. A1 joined in for less than a minute and they started reading. During A1 reading, A2 followed along but I didn't hear her helping.
5	**Day 1**- A2 and B2 arrived together discussing the weekend. They chatted while they got the materials out. B1 arrived and joined in about her weekend. B1 came and told me that she was going to be absent the following day because she had a funeral to go to. The others overheard and started talking to her about it. A1 arrived and joined in until bell rang. During transition, A1 got the book and got drinks for everyone while the girls chatted for about one minute. She began and paused a lot until A2 seemed to confirm the word that she said. **Day 2**- A1 arrived and got the materials out. He talked to me about his future plans until A2 and B2 arrived. B1 was absent so B2 did the decoding sheet with them. As A2 went to get the book, B2 stole her phone and pretending she was going to call someone with it. A2 was trying to get the phone back for about one minute but B2 wouldn't until I told her to. Then, they all read together until the bell rang. **Day 3**- A2 got the materials out and talked to B2 until A1 and B1 got there. During the transition, all four got drinks and chatted about the funeral and half-term. After about one minute, A1 asked if A2 wanted to start. They took turns. A2 paused and A1 either helped her sound out the word or confirmed that she was correct. A1 asked me what a word meant. They read until I told them to pack away. **Day 4**- A1 came in and got the materials out and chatted to B2 about their plans until the other two arrived. A1 and A2 completed the decoding sheet and A2 and B2 talked about their plans for the break while they got drinks. They sat and A1 asked who she wanted to read first. A1 started after asking questions about the book. When B1 got up for something, B2 started trying to bother A1 and A2. They chatted all together for a minute or two until A1 and A2 said that they needed to read.

Recorded Observation of Partnership A 19/5

A1: Yeah. Please stop there for a second. (4:46) What do you think's happened so far?
A2: Aris could speak to Thomas mind by mind. And Thomas found out that they're more the same except for their names and it should've been him that was killed.
A1: Yeah.
A2: Where are we? (reads again 5:43) Gr-ills (6:16)
A1: grilled
A2: (Reads) Looked like (7:01).
A1: Liked
A2: (reads) su-perior? (7:36)
A1: Separate. Do you want to carry on or do you want me to start reading? (7:55) (Reads) What do you thinks happened so far? (13:50).
A2: Um, they've woke up and they've got all the subjects and that on their backs. So I think that Newt might be killed by Group B but I think that they all get killed in the end.
A1: Okay.
A2: Should I read?
A1: Okay.
A2: (reading) challenged?
A1: Yeah (14:48)
A2: The . . . (14:56)
A1: perplexed
A2: What does that mean?
A1: I don't know. Miss, what does perplexed mean?
AHW: Perplexed means confused or puzzled.
A2: (reads) Um, I don't know that word (15:16)
A1: recognition
A2: What? (15:43)
A1: (Says word)
A2: Kneeled? (16:29)
A1: Yeah. That's right
A2: I don't know (16:34)
A1: Walking.
A2: Source? (16:46)
A1: Mmhmm.
A2: Betray? (17:32)
A1: yeah.
A2: re- is that repeated? (17:36)
A1: Repeated
A2: Shouted? (18:32)
A1: yeah.
A2: Im-pulse (18:46)
A1: Yeah.

Amy1a Final Interview Stage 1

AHW: What is the role of the tutor?
Amy2a: Is that the person that's helping the other one?
AHW: Yeah.
Amy2a: Um, being open with them. Not being shy with them. I don't know. It's hard to explain. What was it?
AHW: If we had a tutor and tutee sitting right there and they were both very good at it, what would we see? What would the good tutor be doing?
Amy2a: Helping the child, like, become a better reader. Like if they get stuck on something, then help them.
AHW: And how would they help?
Amy2a: If they were stuck on a word, then they could try to sound it for them. And like if they didn't get that, then tell them the word and have them repeat the word.
AHW: Okay, and what makes a good tutee, that's the person receiving the help?
Amy2a: Um, being there ((both laugh)).
AHW: Yeah, that's a positive.
Amy2a: Also listening. Um, because when I was with R. I got really nervous at first, because I don't like boys. I'm not comfortable with a new person. So, try to be comfortable with them don't be shy.
AHW: Describe how it was to be a tutee.
Amy2a: ((Laughs)). It was gooood.
AHW: How was it good?
Amy2a: Because you was getting the help and support that you need.
AHW: Did R. do all of the things that a good tutor should do?
Amy2a: Yeah.
AHW: Like how?
Amy2a: He explained himself well. He helped me with words and he was like really good.
AHW: Do you feel like you were a good tutee?
Amy2a: Um sort of.
AHW: How so?
Amy2a: Because I didn't come all the time. I went to form instead, otherwise yeah.
AHW: How were you?
Amy2a: I listened to R. He helped me then I helped myself as well.
AHW: Describe how you worked together. What worked well between you two?
Amy2a: If, like, when we was reading the book. He would read a paragraph and I would read a paragraph after.
AHW: What else worked well between you to and how did you work well together?
Amy2a: Because we helped each other. Because if I knew a word that he didn't, then I would tell him the word. And then, if I didn't know a word, then he would tell me the word.
AHW: What didn't work as well?
Amy2a: Me being nervous around him because I got shy.

Appendix J- Comparison of Partnership B's Data

Notes in Situ- B2 and B3

1	**Day 1**- Participants arrived and I introduced them to their partners. B2 had and B3 knew each other and B2 smiled and stated that she was happy to work with someone that she knew. The tutors got out the materials and started with the decoding sheets. After getting drinks, they decided on the book together. B2 asked questions from the training. Then she asked who he'd like to have read first. They didn't have much time to read before it was time to leave. **Day 2**- B3 came in and talked to me until his tutor got there. B2 got out the materials and started chatting with A2 until the bell rang. During the decoding sheet, B2 spent a lot of time on the spelling section. As she was marking it, she started chatting with A2 who had completed and was getting a drink. Afterwards, B2 gave B3 a list of words to study before the next session. Then, they completed the worksheet. Whilst B2 got their book and a drink, she chatted. Before B3 commenced reading, B2 asked him a couple of summary questions. They took turns reading until it was time to go. **Day 3**- B3 got the materials out. A2 and B2 were chatting as they entered. When the bell rang, they started the decoding worksheet. B2 emphasised the spelling portion again and chatted whilst marking and again when getting her drink. This left them with less time to read and they didn't seem to discuss the book very much. As they left, I pulled B2 aside and told her that she didn't need to spend as much time on the spelling. **Day 4**- B3 got the materials out as he was very early. A2 and B2 entered chatting and B3 joined in until the bell rang. B2 didn't follow my advice and still focused on the spelling section. While she corrected the spelling and got a drink, she chatted with B2 while B3 chatted with A3 or me. They all left discussing their weekend plans.
2	**Day 1**- B3 and A3 arrived and talked about their weekend. A2 and B2 entered soon afterwards and joined in with the conversation. The bell rang and they started reading. As the Type 1 sheet didn't have spelling on it, they finished the decoding sheet quickly. The chatted with the other partnership while they got out their books and got drinks. They asked more questions before and during their reading. **Day 2**- B3 was waiting to come in when I got there and talked to me about English. Then, A2 and B2 entered chatting. The bell rang and they started reading. B2 focussed on the spelling section and talked while she marked it and again when they got their book. They didn't have as long to read or discuss the book before it was time to leave. B3 didn't want to leave when it was time for lunch. **Day 3**- B3 came in concerned wondering about whether he should go to assembly which I told him that he didn't. Soon, A3 and he had the same conversation. Afterwards, A2 and B2 came in with the bell. B3 had gotten out the materials so they quickly started and stuck to the same heavy focus on spelling. **Day 4**- I was detained dealing with my class prior to the session. All of the participants were waiting when I got there and were discussing the weekend. They came in, got their materials out and started their worksheets right away. After their focus on spelling, it was time to go.

Recorded Observation of Partnership B on 1/10

B3: Okay. (Reading :30) Mike? Gr-ape
B2: a juice ring
B3: (Reading 1:19) go
B2: gaotie
B3: (Reading 1:40) never
B2: neither
B3: (Reading 1:47) cra-ze
B2: Mmmhmm. Good. Crazier.
B3: Sur-prised.
B2: Mmmhmm.
B3: At-lee
B2: Leisure (reading words and repeats line). Do you want me to read?
B3: Yeah.
B2: (reading 3:32) window. Dar-lain. You can read now.
B3: You have assembly today.
B2: Yeah, I don't go because I'm doing this. You go?
B3: Where are we again? (Points.) Okay. (reading 5:50)
B2: May-bee. Finish your mouthful.
B3: That no… (6:33)
B2: Nowadays.
B3: cla-
B2: clarity (6:43)
B3: pushes
B2: encourage (7:05)
B3: Rein
B2: reinforcement
B3: in the hall.
B2: In the hallway because they don't fit in (7:30).
B3: Come on then.
B2: (keeps stopping and reading a whole line to clarify and explain)
B3: The base idea (8:01)
B2: The basic idea.
B3: behaviour, b.. What? (8:20)
B2: Where are we? (rereads the paragraph)
B3: cur (8:50)
B2: certain

Section of Becky2b Final Interview 18/12

AHW: Remember that all of this confidential. What do you feel is the role of a tutor?
Becky2b: I think that I should teach everything that I know and that I learnt when I was one of them.
AHW: Do you feel that you did a good job at that?
Becky2b: Yeah. [Benji3] went up. You told me and I went up as well.
AHW: What do you feel like the role of the tutee is?
Becky2b: Just like to concentrate and make sure like they're getting it.
AHW: Do you feel like [Benji3] did a good job in being a tutee?
Becky2b: Yeah.
AHW: How was he a good tutee?
Becky2b: He made sure that I understood it. He struggled with reading and his writing. I asked him to write as neatly as he can and he tried SO hard.
AHW: How was it being the tutor this time over the tutee?
Becky2b: I think that it was pretty cool.
AHW: How was it cool?
Becky2b: Cause [Amy2] and me had a really good bond. [Benji3] and I have started getting closer. I never really knew [Benji3]. It's meeting new people.
AHW: So he's the same age as you, so was that weird at first?
Becky2b: Yeah, it was kind of weird at first but then we was just casual.
AHW: Because you've done this before, do you think that it was a good idea using you as a tutor or would it have been better to get someone from top set to be the tutor?
Becky2b: I think that it was better me being the tutor.
AHW: Why would you say that?
Becky2b: Cause I still struggle, me helping him helps me more. I think that it has helped him to realise that I still need help but it's okay to ask for help and stuff.
AHW: Do you think that he felt relaxed with you?
Becky2b: I think that he felt quite tense at first but then he got the hang of it.
AHW: What do you think well in your partnership?
Becky2b: That we understood where each other was coming from.
AHW: Is there anything that was less well?
Becky2b: At the beginning, he was a bit annoying but every boy is a bit annoying.
AHW: How was he annoying?
Becky2b: He would just get out of his seat and wander around. And say, "I'm just getting this and that." He was just being a boy.
AHW: What about tutor time? What was good about tutor time?
Becky2b: Um, that me and him learnt new stuff and that we got to the grades that we have got now cause I got quite a good grade, I think.
AHW: What do you think was less good about tutor time?
Becky2b: Nothing, everything was good about it.

Appendix K- Comparison of Partnership C's Data

Notes in Situ- C1 and C2a

1	**Day 1**- C1 didn't show at the session. Her form tutor let me know that she was feeling uncomfortable working with someone that she didn't know. After talking to her, C1 decided to give it a try for a week. **Day 2**. C1 and C2 were shy but completed the work. C1 had C2 choose the text that he wanted to read on his own which was Maze Runner. She began asking him questions about the book's cover following the training session instructions. **Day 3**- Both showed. C1 got their folder and C2 got the book. C2 talked to other partnership as both were choosing their material. **Day 4**- They talked about weekend plans before starting (about 30 sec.) and during the transition with other partnership when choosing material (about 1 min.). I pulled C1 aside to see if she was comfortable with C2; she is happy to continue.
2	**Day 1**- C1 showed first and talked to D1 and D2. She smiled at said "hi" to C1 and got worksheet out. Before starting, they talked about weekend with other partnership for about 1 minute. She told him that they needed to start which he did promptly. He got up to get the book and get a drink but he was a bit slow doing it. **Day 2**- C2 was first and got the material out before talking to D1 and D2. C1 came shortly afterwards. They talked for less than 30 sec. about being hungry before starting. C2 got the book and both partnerships chatted about lunch about 1-2 mins. **Day 3**- C1 was first in the door and got the material. I talked to her for a minute about her brother (who was in one of my classes). The others came in as bell rang. They quickly started decoding sheet. During transition, C2 got the same book and they chatted for about 1 min. about English class. **Day 4**- C1 got material and talked to D1 and D2. C2 came in at bell. They chatted for about 1 minute about weekend plans. Both partnerships laughed and talked about drinks before starting to read. C2 stopped to get a drink during reading.
3	**Day 2** (Day 1 was a bank holiday.)- C2 was first and told me a funny story about mother before his family before the others got there. The other partnerships soon came in and he told the story to all for about 2 minutes. **Day 3**- C1 came in first, got the worksheets out and talked to D1 and D2. C2 soon came in. He got a drink and joined the conversation. They started after bell rang. They seem to follow the instructions given in training sessions while completing the decoding sheet. As they are reading, C1 tells him what the word is rather than having him break the words down himself. C2 took a minute break during the transition to get the book and a drink and chats while he does this. C1 stops him while reading and asks me for a piece of paper to help C2 focus. **Day 4**- C1 got the material and chatted until C2 came in as the bell rang. They chat for about a minute about their day so far before C1 gets them started. When C2 gets up to get the book and a drink, C1 laughs and demands that he also gets her a drink. They laugh at each other. During reading, C2 uses the piece of paper to stay focus

Recorded Observation of Partnership C 14/5-

C1: Okay, what's happened so far?
C2: Well, Thomas has come up the lift and they're calling him Greenie because they don't know what his name is (:29).
C1: What do you think is going to happen next?
C2: Dunno, maybe somebody might die.
C1: Alright. If you read that bit and I'll read that page.
C2: (Reading) Hangered
C1: Haggered (1:10)
C2: mulled
C1: Milled (1:18)
C2: an
C1: anxiously (1:38)
C2: hid-ere- ous
C1: Hideous
C2: grabbled
C1: grabbed. No, you've missed a line out. (2:12) Grabbed his attention. Do you want some paper to go under it?
C2: Yeah.
C1: (Get's some paper) oh, that's going to annoy me. I think we're at attention.
C2: Yeah.
C1: Slide it down (2:52)
C2: (started reading) disaparing (3:04)
C1: disappearing
C2: Skel-tal (3:48)
C1: skeletal
C2: skeletal figure
C1: fingers
C2: butul
C1: bettle braids (3:55)
C2: Short and s
C1: Pody
C2: starting
C1: staring
C2: any on the
C1: any in the group (4:48)
C2: (starts reading)
C2: (Started reading 5:14)
C2: (Talking to other group) We can have them now. Yes. Thirty second rule.
C1: (Reading again) You start there. (7:41)
C2: (Reading) What?
C1: Anticipating… no. That's it.

Section of Chloe1 Final Interview 20/07

AHW: Describe how it was to be a tutor in this situation.
Chloe1: Um, It was good.
AHW: How would you say that it was good?
Chloe1: It makes you feel proud that you're helping someone else to learn.
AHW: And um, do you feel like you did all of the things that you described that you expect out of a good tutor?
Chloe1: Yeah and no.
AHW: How, yes in what ways?
Chloe1: Like, we got along but then when it came to the reading, we didn't sit down and read. We always got and did things and we didn't always do it properly.
AHW: So that was kind of more of him, wasn't it? So do feel like maybe he wasn't a good tutee?
Chloe1: He was but he just didn't like listen as well.
AHW: Is there anything that he did well do you think?
Chloe1: When he first started, he used to miss out lines and stuff. When he didn't know words, he used to skip it and move on. But now, I've told him to go back and he does it.
AHW: So you feel like he….
Chloe1: Yeah. He sounds out stuff that he doesn't know.
AHW: So you feel like he listened to you?
Chloe1: Yeah.
AHW: So is there anything that you feel, in terms of a tutee that he did the things that you would expect out of a tutee?
Chloe1: Um, yeah.
AHW: Like how?
Chloe1: Just, I don't know.
AHW: As a tutee, you were saying that you think that a tutee should listen and try to do what the tutor said. Do you feel like he did that?
Chloe1: Yeah, he did that but on some occasions, he didn't.
AHW: And in terms of tutor, you were saying that they're open and try not to….
Chloe1: Yeah.
AHW: Do you feel like you did that?
Chloe1: Yeah.
AHW: Is there anything that you feel like you didn't do as good at?
Chloe1: Mmm, I don't know. I didn't let him figure what the word meant. If he didn't understand a word, I'd just read it to him. So I kind of made a mistake with that but I stopped doing that now.
AHW: How do you feel like you worked together? What worked well between you two?
Chloe1: We got along quite well. Like we talked to each other easier. It wasn't as awkward.

Appendix L- Comparison of Partnership D's Data

Notes in Situ- D2 and D3

11	**Day 1**- D2 got the material. D3 was late because of her crutches. D2 helped her in while C2 held the door. Everyone talked about D3's leg and how it happened for about three minutes. I told everyone that we needed to get started. Everyone started. D2 got D3 a drink but they only had time to discuss it before it was time to leave. **Day 2**- D2 got everything ready and D3 was late. C2 and C3 teased D3 about being clumsy while D2 helped D3. They all laughed. D2 and D3 started right away on the decoding sheet. D2 got them both a drink and they started reading the book. D3 had to leave early before the corridors got crowded. **Day 3**- D2 got everything ready while she waited for D3. D3 sat and they chatted for about 30 seconds about her arms being tired. Then, they did the decoding sheet. Afterwards, D2 got them both drinks and the book. They were trying to remember everything about the book. D3 needed to stop and leave but no one wanted to go to class. **Day 4**- D2 came in at the same time with D3. D2 helped D3 get into her chair and got the materials. C2 tripped on the crutches and everyone laughed and began to chat about broken bones for about one minute. They got started with the decoding sheets and got drinks and began talking with C2 and C3 about the weekend for about one minute while they found their places in the book. They read until it was time for D3 to leave.
12	**Day 1**- D2 came and got the materials ready and talked to C2 and C3 about the weekend until D3 entered. They completed the decoding sheet. Then, C2 and C3 got them drinks and their book. They joked about men being subservient. Then, they started reading. I didn't hear them sounding anything out or making mistakes. **Day 2**- D2 got everything ready and started talking to C2 and C3 about Christmas presents until D3 entered and joined in with her list. They talked for about one minute before starting their decoding sheet. Then, D2 got drinks for D3 and herself. They took turns reading and we lost track of time until we were interrupted by the next group. **Day 3**- D2 got the materials. Then, she, C2 and C3 asked me what was going to happen when we got back from Christmas. They wanted to continue after the holidays. D3 came into the room and joined in with the discussion. I told them that the study would end but possibly we could try to carry on. Then, I got them to start with their decoding sheets. C3 and D3 raised each other on trying to see who could finish reading the list first. Then, they got drinks and started talking to me about carrying on with the intervention. They started reading but the bell rang shortly afterwards. **Day 4- Final Assessments and Interviews**

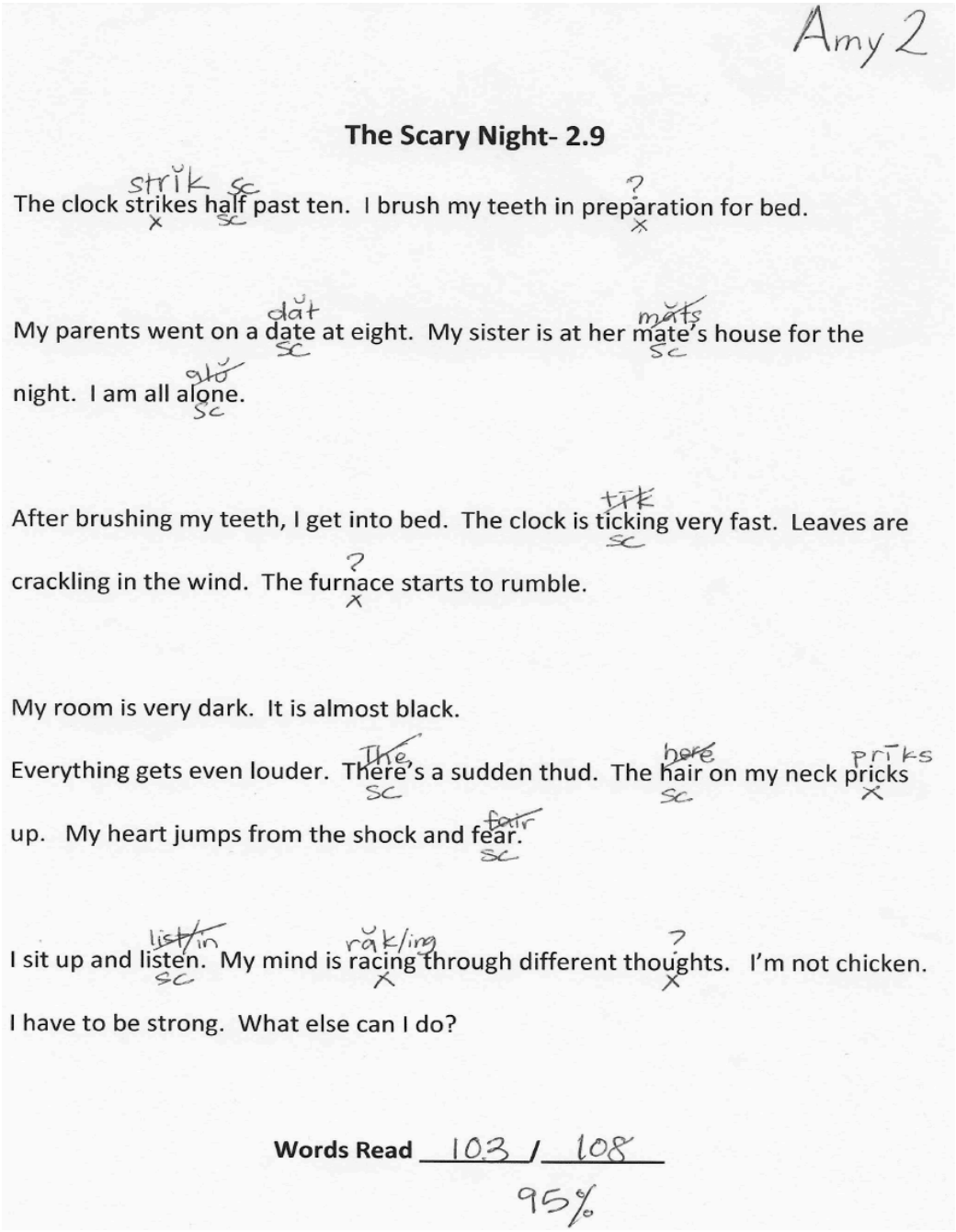
Recorded Observation of D2 and D3 10/12

D2: What's happening in the book? Do you remember?
D3: There's a dance.
D2: What page did we get up to?
D3: Let me think. They were all given eggs to look after, to be careful, to see if they'd be good parents. He woke up in the morning and his mum was cooking.
D2: What did he do with it?
D3: He put it in his bag. It was work 75% of his grade. Because it was all broken up, he asked for half of it.
D2: Couldn't he have just bought another egg?
D3: No, because it was like they had marked it.
D2: What do you think is going to happen?
D3: We think that he'll find the ring.
D3: (Reading 6:00) was (paused)
D2: confused
D2: (Reading 7:50)
D2: Wait you're on a different page than me. (Laughing.) Wait. We're really on page 122. Miss, I wish that we could stay in here rather than going to class.
D3: (Reading 9:20)

D2 Final Interview 16/12

AHW: What do you feel like makes a good tutor?
Daisy2b: Helping like if they get stuck or they struggle then like helping.
AHW: What about the tutee, what makes a good tutee?
Daisy2b: Like if they get stuck, then like asking questions. If they do get stuck, they ask…
AHW: Like K. in this situation, what do you think is their job in this situation?
Daisy2b: Like concentrate on the book and the sheets that we do. And like, .. yeah.
AHW: How was it to be the tutor this time rather than the tutee?
Daisy2b: It was better.
AHW: How would you say it was better?
Daisy2b: All we have to do is help them if they get stuck. And read out stuff that they don't understand.
AHW: How did it make you feel to be a tutor in this situation?
Daisy2b: Good.
AHW: How good?
Daisy2b: Cause like you're not just sitting there reading.
AHW: Okay. Do you feel like you were a better tutor than if I just took someone from a top set to be a tutor?
Daisy2b: No.
AHW: Why?
Daisy2b: Because they have more experience. .. Well, maybe. It depends.
AHW: What do you mean that it depends?
Daisy2b: Cause if you take someone from the top set, they're obviously in the top set. And yeah….
AHW: Does that make them a better reader or a better tutor?
Daisy2b: Could be a better reader.
AHW: What about a better tutor?
Daisy2b: Could be, yeah…
AHW: Would you want to be tutored by someone that has done this before or maybe struggled before or]
Daisy2b: [one that struggled.
AHW: Why?
Daisy2b: Because you can help them and they won't get embarrassed if you say something wrong.
AHW: Do you feel like you were that kind of person for D3?
Daisy2b: *yeah.*
AHW: How do you feel that you guys worked together?
Daisy2b: Um, like if she gets stuck, then she asks. And we just get along; we get along.
AHW: Is there anything that didn't work as well with you as a team?
Daisy2b: No.

Appendix M- One of A2's Initial Running Records



Amy 2

The Scary Night- 2.9

The clock strik strikes half past ten. I brush my teeth in ? preparation for bed.

My parents went on a dat date at eight. My sister is at her mats mate's house for the night. I am all alo alone.

After brushing my teeth, I get into bed. The clock is tik ticking very fast. Leaves are crackling in the wind. The ? furnace starts to rumble.

My room is very dark. It is almost black.

Everything gets even louder. The There's a sudden thud. The bore hair on my neck priks pricks up. My heart jumps from the shock and fear fair.

I sit up and list listen. My mind is rak raking through different ? thoughts. I'm not chicken. I have to be strong. What else can I do?

Words Read 103 / 108

95%

Appendix N- One of B2's Initial Running Records

Becky 2

3.6 Guided by the Stars

The stars in the dark sky shone down on me. They were a beacon, lighting my way. They were giving me hope of a new life. In this life, I wouldn't labour until my hands cracked. This life would be one without whips striking me whenever they wanted.

There were sounds of crickets and water rushing down a nearby stream. Soon, these sounds could not be heard over my heavy gasps. I had been running for what seemed like forever. My mind began to blur and slip backwards. Thoughts of what I left behind came to my mind. I could feel the sharpness of the stings on my back.

These memories came to an end suddenly. The crickets' chirps were replaced by the barks of the dogs and the sound of men yelling. I could hear the low, husky voice of my overseer. Chills ran down my spine thinking of what would happen if he caught me and I began to shiver.

Words Read 74 / 77

= 96%

Appendix O- One of C2's Initial Running Records

Codey 2

Wolves 4.0

A wolf is the largest member of the canine family. They live in packs with numerous members. In each pack, there is an alpha female and male. They mate for life. Wolves make good parents. Despite this, only the alpha female and strong male mate. This limits the amount of pups in a pack. The other females in the pack babysit.

When they are born, a wolf is blind and deaf. They are only one pound. Soon, they are able to hear as far as ten miles away.

They also have an excellent sense of smell. They have over 200 million scent cells- 40 times more than a human- and can smell others from over a mile away.

Wolves have a powerful jaw and can eat twenty pounds of meat at a time which is over 100 hamburgers.

They can also swim up to eight miles due to small webs in between their toes.

They can run forty miles per hour for short distances.

Words Read 80 / 84

95%

Appendix P- One of D2's Initial Running Records

Daisy 2

3.6 Guided by the Stars

The stars in the dark sky shone down on me. They were a beacon, lighting my way. They were giving me hope of a new life. In this life, I wouldn't labour until my hands cracked. This life would be one without whips striking me whenever they wanted.

There were sounds of crickets and water rushing down a nearby stream. Soon, these sounds could not be heard over my heavy gasps. I had been running for what seemed like forever. My mind began to blur and slip backwards. Thoughts of what I left behind came to my mind. I could feel the sharpness of the stings on my back.

These memories came to an end suddenly. The crickets' chirps were replaced by the barks of the dogs and the sound of men yelling. I could hear the low, husky voice of my overseer. Chills ran down my spine thinking of what would happen if he caught me and I began to shiver.

Words Read 87 / 91

96%

Appendix Q- Sample of Corresponding Lessons to Running Records

Becky's Individualised Intervention Plan Weeks 1-3

Miscue Analysis Showed Gaps: oe, ea, ae, oo, ou, ie

	Monday	Tuesday	Thursday	Friday
Week 1				
	Type 1- ā (ae) Lesson 41	Type 2- ā (ae) Lesson 42	Type 1- ī (ie) Lesson 61	Type 2- ī (ie) Lesson 62
Week 2				
	Type 1- ō (oe) Lesson 71	Type 2- ō (oe) Lesson 72	Type 1- ē (ea) Lesson 56	Type 2- ē (ea) Lesson 57
Week 3				
	Type 1- Long oo Lesson 116	Type 2- Long oo Lesson 117	Type 1- ou Lesson 136	Type 2- ou Lesson 137

Lesson 41- Long ā Word Families

☐ ake	☐ ame	☐ ale
my words:	my words:	**my words:**
bake cake take cake bake take cake take bake	name lame shame lame name shame lame name shame	pale sale tale sale pale tale sale pale tale

Lesson 42- Long ā Decoding- Rule: Silent e makes the vowel say its name.

Decoding Together	Decoding On Own	Timed Test Time:	Timed Test Time:	Recoding
hat	pan	sane	fad	
hate	pane	fate	cane	
fat	fate	mat	fate	
fate	fat	fade	hat	
bad	mat	bad	bade	
bade	mate	bade	rate	
rat	fade	made	mat	
rate	cane	can	cane	
mat	fad	pane	pane	
mate	can	mate	mate	
fad	rate	fad	sane	
fade	late	fat	san	
can	san	rate	bad	
cane	sane	pan	late	
pane	bade	late	sane	

"I am not mad; I'm ___ ___ ___ ___. There was mud on the window ___ ___ ___ ___ .

Lesson 61- Long ī Word Families

☐ ide	☐ ike	☐ ive
my words:	my words:	**my words:**
wide	like	hive
tide	bike	dive
side	hike	five
tide	bike	dive
wide	like	hive
side	hike	five
tide	bike	dive
side	hike	hive
wide	like	five

Lesson 62- Long ī Decoding

Rule: Silent e makes the vowel say its name.

Decoding Together	Decoding On Own	Timed Test Time:	Timed Test Time:	Recoding
bit	kite	bite	ripe	
bite	kit	wine	fine	
kit	win	bit	pin	
kite	bit	kite	win	
shin	bite	twine	shin	
shine	kite	fine	ripe	
grim	fin	grime	grime	
grime	fine	lip	twine	
rip	grime	pine	fin	
ripe	grim	wine	grim	
twin	shin	ride	pine	
twine	shine	ripe	win	
fin	ripe	rip	rip	
fine	rip	shine	shine	
win	wine	kit	wine	

There was mud and ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ on the dishes.

He kicked me in the ___ ___ ___ ___ .

Lesson 66- Long ō Word Families

 oe	 ope	 one
my words:	my words:	**my words:**
doe foe toe foe doe toe foe doe toe	rope cope dope cope rope dope rope cope dope	bone cone shone cone bone shone bone cone shone

Lesson 67- Long ō Decoding

Rule: Silent e makes the vowel say its name.

Decoding Together	Decoding On Own	Timed Test Time:	Timed Test Time:	Recoding
cod	Mope	not	shone	
code	nod	note	rode	
not	node	shone	rod	
note	cod	rode	cone	
rob	code	mope	cope	
robe	not	nod	rob	
tot	note	node	mope	
tote	rob	cop	note	
nod	robe	robe	code	
node	bone	rod	dope	
bon	bon	rode	hope	
bone	shone	rob	rope	
rod	tone	bon	node	
rode	rod	cone	robe	
shone	rode	bone	rode	

I had a ___ ___ ___ ___ or bump on my neck.

The ___ ___ ___ ___ of your voice makes you sound angry.

Lesson 56- ēa Word Families

☐ ea	bea ☐	☐ eat
my words:	my words:	**my words:**
sea east tea east sea tea east sea tea	beat bean beast bean beat beast bean beat beast	seat heat treat heat seat treat heat seat

Lesson 57- ēa Decoding

Rule: When 2 vowels are together, the first says its name & the other is silent.

Decoding Together	Decoding On Own	Timed Test Time:	Timed Test Time:	Recoding
read	Yeast	each	Feast	
treat	each	treat	peak	
mean	treat	peak	bead	
seam	read	yeast	teach	
bead	lead	lean	teak	
teak	teak	bead	read	
lean	lean	ream	yeast	
each	teach	read	treat	
yeast	beast	treat	lead	
beast	bead	seam	lean	
peak	least	teak	beast	
lean	peak	each	least	
treat	yeast	beast	peak	
read	each	lean	seam	
each	feast	read	mean	

We need a new ___ ___ ___ ___ of paper for the printer.

I want to climb to the mountain ____ ____ ____ ___.

Lesson 116- Long oo Word Families

☐ oo	boo ☐	☐ oot
my words: boo too loo too boo loo too boo loo	my words: boon boom boost boom boon boost boom boon boost	**my words:** boot hoot loot hoot loot boot hoot loot boot

Lesson 117- Long oo Decoding

Tip:oo can make lots of sounds.

Today, we're going to learn about the most common sound it makes.

Decoding Together	Decoding On Own	Timed Test Time:	Timed Test Time:	Recoding
fool	Tooth	loot	Room	
tool	fool	pool	groom	
root	zoo	spook	stool	
tooth	loot	groom	pool	
shoot	tool	gloom	loom	
gloom	loom	tooth	loot	
room	root	tool	fool	
groom	pool	fool	tooth	
soon	shoot	root	zoo	
spook	stool	shoot	tool	
stool	gloom	room	root	
pool	groom	soon	shoot	
loom	spook	stool	gloom	
loot	room	loom	spook	
zoo	soon	zoo	soon	

The large man seemed to ___ ___ ___ ___ over the boy and it filled me with ___ ___ ___ ___ ___.

Lesson 136- ou Word Families

ou		out	ound
my words:	my words:		**my words:**
out oust ouch out ouch oust out ouch oust	pout bout shout bout pout shout bout pout shout		found mound ground mound found ground mound ground found

Lesson 137- ou Decoding

Tip: ou can make lots of sounds.

Today, we're going to learn about the most common one it makes.

Decoding Together	Decoding On Own	Timed Test Time:	Timed Test Time:	Recoding
snout	sound	house	Bound	
flour	cloud	round	house	
bounce	found	mouse	about	
flounce	snout	sound	round	
pound	mouse	spout	clout	
pounce	pounce	pound	mouse	
spout	clout	bounce	found	
cloud	pound	snout	sound	
sound	round	flour	cloud	
found	flounce	flounce	snout	
mouse	about	pounce	pounce	
clout	bounce	cloud	pound	
round	house	found	flounce	
about	spout	clout	bounce	
house	bound	about	spout	

A tiger likes to ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ on its prey.

With her high heels on, she would ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ not just walk.

Appendix R- Reading Material and Choices

List of Books Offered

The Maze Runner (2009) (Dashner)
The Scorch Trials (2010) (Dashner)
The Death Cure (2011) (Dashner)
The Kill Order (2012) (Dashner)
The Fever Code (2016) (Dashner)
Divergent (2011) (Roth)
Insurgent (2012) (Roth)
Allegiant (2013) (Roth)
Short!: A Book of Very Short Stories (Crossley-Holland, 1998)
Closer magazines
First News printouts
Match of the Day magazine
Motocross Action magazine
OK! magazine

Requested materials-
Diary of a Wimpy Kid (2007) (Kinney)
Diary of a Wimpy Kid: Roderick Rules (2008) (Kinney)
Diary of a Wimpy Kid: The Last Straw (2009) (Kinney)
Diary of a Wimpy Kid: Dog Days (2009) (Kinney)
Diary of a Wimpy Kid: The Ugly Truth (2010) (Kinney)
Diary of a Wimpy Kid: Cabin Fever (2011) (Kinney)
Diary of a Wimpy Kid: The Third Wheel (2012) (Kinney)
Diary of a Wimpy Kid: Hard Luck (2013) (Kinney)
Diary of a Wimpy Kid: The Long Haul (2014) (Kinney)
Buried Alive (Wilson)
Double Act (Wilson)
Dustbin Baby (Wilson)
Candyfloss (Wilson)
Best Friends (Wilson)
Bad Girls (Wilson)
The Lottie Project (Wilson)
Glubbslyme (Wilson)

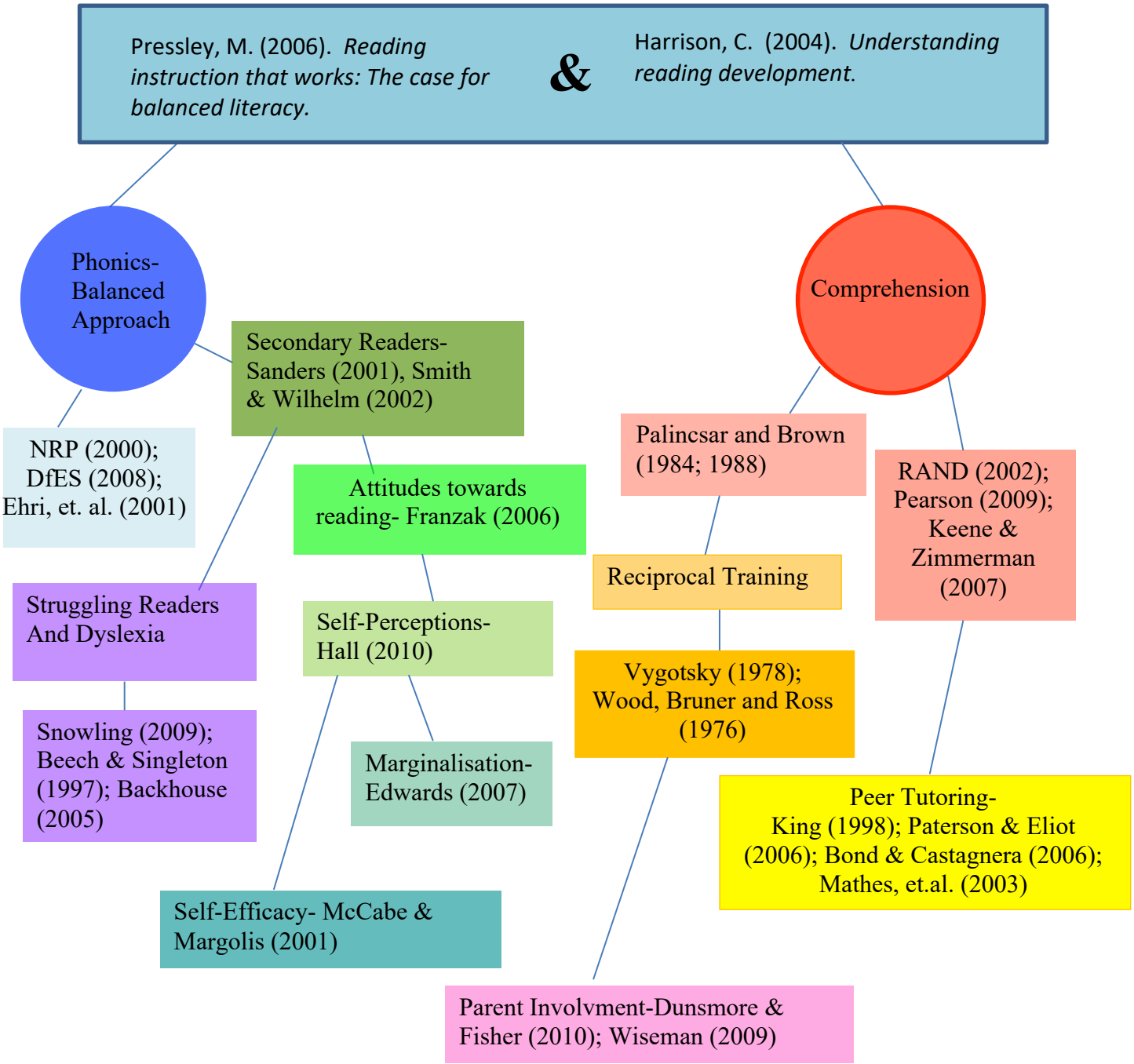
Stage 1

Date	A	B	C	D
Wk1 20/4-24/4	Scorch Trials	Death Cure	Maze Runner	Closer
Wk2 27/4-1/5	“	“	“	Dustbin Baby
Wk3 5/5- 8/5	“	“	“	“
Wk4 11/5- 15/5	“	“	“	“
Wk5 18/5- 22/5	“	“	“	“
Wk6 1/6- 4/6	“	“	“	“
Wk7 8/6- 12/6	“	“	“	“
Wk8 15/6- 19/6	“	“	“	“
Wk9 22/6- 26/6	“	“	“	“
Wk10 29/6- 3/7	“	“	“	“
Wk11 6/7- 10/7	“	“	“	“
Wk 12 13/7- 17/7	“	“	“	“

Stage 2

Date	A	B	C	D
Wk1 14/9- 18/9	Diary of a Wimpy Kid: Third Wheel	Diary of a Wimpy Kid: Hard Luck	Diary of a Wimpy Kid: Hard Luck	Short!
Wk2 21/9- 25/9	“	“	“	Diary of a Wimpy Kid: Third Wheel
Wk3 28/9- 2/10	“	“	“	“
Wk4 5/10- 9/10	“	“	“	“
Wk5 12/10- 16/10	“	“	“	“
Wk6 2/11- 6/11	“	“	“	“
Wk7 9/11- 13/11	“	“	“	“
Wk8 16/11- 20/11	“	“	“	“
Wk9 23/11- 27/11	“	“	“	“
Wk10 30/11- 4/12	“	“	“	“
Wk11 7/12- 11/12	“	“	“	“
Wk12 14/12- 18/12	“	“	“	“

Appendix S- Initial Literature Review Search



Appendix T- Example of Transcript

Views On:
- Reading (Materials, Pref.
- Themselves as Readers
- Peers

Becky2a Interview

AHW: So, looking at this book. How well do you think that you could read this?

Becky2a: Um, I think that I'd be okay. Self-Perceptions, Accurate?

AHW: Do you think that you could be called in front of the class and read it?

Becky2a: No, I don't like going up in front of people.

AHW: Why not?

Becky2a: Just nervous.

AHW: Okay. Would you feel okay if you were sitting at your desk at reading it?

Becky2a: No.

AHW: Why?

Becky2a: I just get really scared.

AHW: What if it was a different subject and it wasn't reading...

Becky2a: (Looks confused.)

AHW: If it was like painting or something, would you okay with that?

Becky2a: Yeah.

AHW: So it's the reading part of it?

Becky2a: Yeah, I know that I'm not very good at reading. ~~Self~~ Reader Self-Concept

AHW: Okay, so you feel like you're not very good at reading?

Becky2a: Yeah.

AHW: Have you always felt like that?

Becky2a: Yeah.

1.2

AHW: How would you say that this is different than the books that you read at home?

Becky2a: Very different. Preferences

AHW: Why?

Becky2a: Because that's like... I don't really read books like that. I read more girlie books.

AHW: Um, just about what? What do you like to read about?

Becky2a: Like, stuff like girl's diaries.

AHW: Do you like to read books or magazines or what other types of things do you read?

Becky2a: Magazines.

AHW: You like to read magazine more?

Becky2a: Yeah (chuckles). Mostly magazines.

AHW: Do you read the articles or do you just glance through it?

Becky2a: It depends on the pictures. If it looks interesting, then I do read it. Confidence level

AHW: Okay, and how often would you say that you read?

Becky2a: Everyday.

AHW: How long would you say that you read?

Becky2a: 20 minutes. Enjoyment & Con

AHW: Do you read with someone?

Becky2a: I read by myself or sometimes my mom sits and makes me read to my sister.

AHW: Do you read twenty minutes because you have to or is that something...

Becky2a: I read twenty minutes because it hurts my head or it hurts my eyes looking at a book for too long. Value

AHW: And why do you read? Are you required to read or do you like to read?

Becky2a: I like to read but I don't like to read in front of people. I can read in front of my mum. But I don't like to read in front of other people. Parent Involvment

AHW: And, um, so you like to read in front of people that you feel comfortable with?

Becky2a: Yeah. Like [Beth1], I can read in front of her. Relationship with Tutor

AHW: Reading twenty minutes, is that something that you do because you like or you're required to do it for school?

Becky2a: My mum asks me sometimes to do it most of the time I do it.. Value

AHW: Because you like to do it?

Becky2a: Yeah. I know that it will help me.

AHW: Oh, okay. What will it help you with?

Becky2a: Just my future. Reading and stuff.

AHW: Okay. Thanks,